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Abstract

To date, scientists have provided enough empirical evidence, which confirm that individuals are affected by a set of social identities that are key contributors to their self-view and silently determine and shape their behavior and attitudes. Among other social identities, is the European identity, as a critical component of consumers' behavior yet relatively neglected from researchers. This is despite its proven relevance for shaping consumers behavior. Previous research studies were mainly focused on national and global identity and only recently, the effects of European identity in consumption preferences were simultaneously involved and researched. However, up to now, researchers have failed to incorporate non-EU immigrants in their investigation of the relationship between EU identity and their consumption preferences.

Relying on the older research models, the end goal of this thesis is to find out the influence of EU identity on consumers purchase preferences for products coming from Austria, products coming from another EU country (other than Austria) and products coming from outside of the EU. An empirical investigation with a sample of 216 respondents was conducted to examine the hypothesized relationships.

The results revealed that EU identity is positively correlated with ethnic, national, and global identity. Regression analysis shows that EU identity, after controlling for the influences of ethnic, national, and global identity, significantly influences consumers purchase intentions toward Austrian products and products coming from another EU country. The findings also show that under the influence of consumers' susceptibility to normative influence (SNI) as a moderator, European identity's impact on purchase intentions for domestic and foreign EU products did not change.

The crucial role of EU identity in forecasting consumers purchase behavior should be appraised and applicated in the literature of location-based identities. Cues that trigger European identification are advised to be considered as these may lead to an increase on sales of domestic and foreign EU products. Besides, with caution should be considered the first and second generation of non-EU immigrants as possible target audience as they significantly differ in their identification with EU.

Keywords: *European identity, social identity theory, location-based identity, ethnic identity, national identity, global identity, purchase intentions, domestic and foreign product preference, non-EU immigrants.*

Table of Contents

1. Introduction.....	1
1.1 Research objectives	3
1.2 Structure of the thesis	6
2. Theoretical background	7
2.1 The meaning of identity.....	7
2.1.2 Identity formation and development stages	8
2.2 Social identity theory	10
2.2.1 Definitions and evaluation of social identity	10
2.2.2 Identity principles	13
2.3 Multiple identities	15
2.4 Location-based identities.....	16
2.4.1 Ethnic identity.....	17
2.4.2 National identity	18
2.4.3 Global identity	19
2.4.4 European identity.....	20
2.5 European Union and immigration	25
3. Research model and hypothesis.....	26
3.1 Proposed research model	27
3.2 Development of hypothesis	28
3.3 Moderating effect of SNI.....	33
3.4 Control variables.....	36
4. Methodology	37
4.1 Data collection	37
4.2 Questionnaire structure.....	38
4.3 Variables and measures	39
5. Analysis and results	44
5.1 Sample description.....	44
5.2 Measures of validity and reliability	47
5.3 Relationship between identities	49
5.4 European identity and purchase intentions	51
5.4.1 European identity and domestic products.....	52
5.4.2 European identity and foreign EU products	54

5.4.3 European identity and foreign non-EU products	55
5.5 European identity and the moderation effect of SNI	56
5.5.1 SNI and domestic products	56
5.5.2 SNI and foreign EU-products	57
5.6 Additional findings	58
5.6.1 Political orientation and EU identity	59
5.6.2 Nationality (Passport) and EU identity	60
5.6.3 Second generation of non-EU immigrants and EU identity	61
5.7 Summary of findings	63
6. Discussion and conclusion	64
7. Theoretical contributions	67
8. Managerial implications.....	69
9. Limitations and further research	71
10. References.....	74
11. Appendix.....	88

List of Figures:

Figure 1: A process model of identity formation.

Figure 2: Conceptual model: hypothesized relationships

Figure 3: Pearson's correlation coefficients

List of Tables:

Table 1: Reliability and validity of constructs

Table 2: Socio-demographics (n=216)

Table 3: Purchase intentions towards domestic products

Table 4: Purchase intentions towards other EU products

Table 5: Purchase intentions towards foreign Non-EU products

Table 6: Moderation effect of SNI on domestic products.

Table 7: Moderation effect of SNI on foreign EU products.

Table 8: Summary of findings

List of Abbreviations:

c.f. see also (Latin: conferre)

e.g. for example (Latin: exempli gratia)

et al. and others (Latin: et alii)

etc. and so on (Latin: et cetera)

EU European Union

ID identity

CSII Consumers susceptibility to interpersonal influence

SNI susceptibility to normative influence

M mean

n.s. not significant

PI purchase intention

1. Introduction

The idea of social identity theory has been up to now widely applied by scientists as basis for various researcher patterns since its inception by Tajfel in early 70s. Social identity theory was already back then founded as crucial key for the creation of individual's self-concept. Therefore, it was interpreted from Tajfel & Turner (1979) as individuals' social categorization where people consider themselves as a part of a distinct social group, feel special affiliation and possess akin attitudes with the members of that group while consider other individuals as out-group. Many theorists have recognized that individual's identification with unified entities and their affiliation to a particular social group contributes to shape their behavior towards the in-group and also towards their out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). Individuals may hold multiple roles and can be a part of various social groups that may coexist (Reed et al., 2012). A connection between these individuals and their social groups is created therefore they behave in harmony to their in-group (Settles, 2004; Reed et al., 2012).

Reed et al.,(2012), also empathized the theoretical importance of social identities and claimed that individuals may hold multiple location-based identities simultaneously (see Settles, 2004). In this sense, the literature and the previous research studies have mostly considered the distinction between national and global identity, and actually suggested that these location-based identities are able to predict consumer preferences. Indeed, they highlight the significant effect of national identity to forecast the preferences of domestic products while those with global identity prefer the global products (Zhang & Khare, 2009; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015).

From an international marketing context, the literature suggests that there exists a more generalized approach and these days' consumers use additional reference points while establishing their consumption choices, that reach beyond regional range, and thus involve larger entities (Micevski et.al, 2018).

Such an entity with common characteristic constitutes the European Union (EU). EU it is perceived as distinct entity (Castano, Sacchi & Gries, 2003; Duchesne & Frognier, 1995) with which individuals may identify or feel they belong to, in a similar way as they identify with global or national identity (Diamantopoulos, Herz, & Koschate-Fischer, 2017; Reed et al., 2012; Settles, 2004; Arnett, 2002).

However, the prominent role that European identity in a conjoint effect with other location-based identities (e.g. national, global) plays in shaping consumers behavior has only recently driven the attention of researchers (see Micevski et.al., 2018).

Nevertheless, the aim of these recent studies was to investigate particularly the perception of European citizens thus neglecting the point of view of immigrants coming from non-EU countries who have been living in a European Union country for many years. The statistics have shown that in 2016, 4.4 million individuals migrated to one of the EU members states (Eurostat, 2019). Among these, 2.0 million young citizens under the age of 28 years old were coming from non-EU countries. This number increased dramatically as the non-EU migration flow registered in the EU beginning of 2018 was 22.3 Million (Eurostat, 2019). These immigrants contribute significantly to host-country economy development. In general, 85% of their earnings is spent in the host-country and 15% is sent back to their country of origin (Untainted Nations, 2018).

Taking into account the large number of people coming into the EU countries, their prominent role to the economic development of these countries and the importance of EU identity in shaping consumers behavior, this thesis investigates whether EU identity is developed among non-EU immigrants and if this identity is able to drive their product preferences for domestic, foreign EU and foreign non-EU products.

In other words, this study provides evidence for the strength of European identity among immigrants and its undisputed role on shaping consumers purchase behavior. Based on a sample of 216 consumers, the simultaneous effect of the above-mentioned identities on consumer preferences for different product categories are explored.

In general, the results show that European identity indeed influences product preferences and purchase behaviors of non-Eu immigrants beyond any particular product category. Moreover, EU identity effect on purchase intention for domestic and foreign EU products was thought to be moderated by SNI however, the results showed that EU identity and SNI did not interact.

Hence, the findings show that there exists a positive correlation between European, ethnic, national, and global identity. Therefore, from a managerial point of view, using EU identity to apply communication strategies and profit from simultaneous effects of multiple identities can yield to desirable benefits with regard to purchase intentions of domestic and foreign EU products.

1.1 Research objectives

Previous research studies explored the effects of consumer location-based identities focusing mainly on national and global identities. However, up to now, the researchers mostly focused on finding differences on consumption preferences either triggered by specific identity (e.g. national , global) or by a particular product category (e.g. food, cloths) (Westjohn, Singh & Magnusson, 2012; Zhang & Khare, 2009).

Only lastly, Micevski et al., (2018), investigated the effects of European identity on consumer product preferences by exploring the simultaneous effects of multiple location-based identities (i.e. national, global and EU identity) on consumption preferences. However, thus far, researchers have neglected to incorporate immigrants who come from non-EU countries while investigating the effects that European identity may have in shaping their consumption preferences.

Hence, immigrant's identity as they arrive in the host society may face various changes. The challenges of the new arrivals to understand and adapt to an unfamiliar culture, to integrate, join the labour market and learn the language, influences their behavior and therefore also their identity (Teney et al., 2016, p. 2185).

Erikson (1968), considered identity formation as a continuous and a long process which occurs during our whole life. Individual's identity is also related to the changes and shifts that evolve during different periods of time by which a single self is created (Kohli, 2000). Grotevant (1987, p. 215) also argued that identity is also created as a joint process of society, friends, family, culture etc. On the other hand, immigrants may face complex acculturation process as they come in the host society with an already established identity. However, the literature suggest that they are highly encouraged to integrate and adapt in the new country of settlement (Phinney et al., 2001; Phinney, 1998). The social interactions with the host society impacts the creation of individuals identity (McAdams, 2001).

Acculturation theory argues that by accepting and practicing, customs, norms, and values of the prevailing culture , immigrants gradually progress toward host culture identification (Van Oudenhoven et al., 2006 p. 640 ; Ramirez, 1984). Miglietta and Tartaglia (2009) claim, that the adoption of immigrants is a process influenced from circumstances and factors such as length of stay, language, and culture knowledge of the host society.

On the other hand, Europe consist a large number of populations of various nations. This makes EU less ethnic and more multinational, therefore European identification among non-EU immigrants is quite realistic (Agirdag et al., 2016 p. 290).

Moreover, EU is considered as a unified society (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017) and EU identity is considered to represent a distinct identity due to its civic nature (Agirdag et al., 2016 p. 286 ; Erisen, 2017). The civic values that EU encompasses (e.g. human rights, equality, democracy) may overcome the differences between host-country residents and immigrants, helping them to find something in common (Erisen, 2017; Kennedy, 2013).

Various researchers consider that under the idea of an “*umbrella identity*” the EU identity may overcome the differences between immigrants and native residents as EU identity can be shared among both (Erisen, 2017 p. 27; Curtis, 2014; Oshri et al., 2016).

This makes it easier for non-EU immigrants to feel connected to the host-country (Erisen, 2017, p. 30; Kennedy, 2013) and could drive non-EU immigrants towards a national and European identification.

Moreover, for non- EU citizens the EU is perceived as “*international leadership entity*” (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017, p. 8). As Transue (2007) claimed, a common identity may reduce disagreements and may overcome the social barriers. Kundani (2007), also claims that identifying with hosts country national identity is perceived as a determinant of integration and immigrants are enthusiastic to adapt and fit-in into the new host society (Phinney et al., 2001 ; Phinney, 1998). Guan and So (2016, p. 3) also argue, that social identity is developed through social interaction and communication. Positive interactions and communication with host country members, support and spread a feeling of belonging to a shared in-group identity (Teney et al., 2016 p. 2186).

Thus, the social interactions of non-Eu immigrant with Europeans (in this case Austrians) may boost EU identity among immigrants. As immigrants may come in frequent social contact (due to work, school, friends etc.) with natives , they are able to develop national as well as European identity. Teney et al., (2016), while exploring the EU identification among immigrants from EU and non-EU countries in Germany also found that “*Non-EU immigrant tend to identify as European – even if to a lesser extent than EU immigrants*”(Teney et al., 2016, p. 2182)

Furthermore, he also found that non-EU immigrants identify themselves stronger with the host country identity (German national identity) in comparison to immigrants com-

ing from other EU countries. He further claimed that, Germany identity goes “hand in hand” with EU identity (Teney et al., 2016 p. 2197).

Van Oudenhoven et al., (2006, p. 297) also investigated the raise of EU identity among Turkish immigrant pupils and compared it to native Belgium pupils. His findings have shown, that Turkish immigrants identify themselves stronger with EU rather than with Belgium. However, Belgian scholars identified themselves stronger with national identity, but they had also a stronger EU identification in comparison to Turkish scholars.

Therefore, the purpose of this thesis is to examine the special role of European identity on consumers behavior and its effect on consumers’ perception across various product categories for products coming from Austria, products coming from another European Union country (other than Austria) and products coming from outside of the EU.

Thus, this master’s thesis will try to provide answers to these research questions:

- To what extent have non-EU immigrants developed their European Identity?
- Is identification with the EU able to drive purchase intentions of non-EU immigrants for domestic, foreign EU and foreign non-EU products?
- Is the impact of national or global identity stronger than the impact of EU identity in a consumption situation?

1.2 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of six major chapters, starting with literature review, which offers a relatively brief and clear overview of the research topic and research goals. Then, it continues with development of hypothesis and conceptual model, to finally end up with results, conclusion, and recommendations for future studies.

The second chapter provides a comprehensive review of the relevant theory, involving various concepts, which are crucial for this study. This section starts by explaining the identity formation process and continues by further elaborating the definitions of social identity theory. It also explains various identity principles such as centrality, salience, relevance etc.

The third chapter comprises the development of hypothesis and a description of control variables and an illustration of the conceptual model.

In the fourth chapter, the data collection procedure, research methodology likewise construct measures are described.

In the fifth chapter, preliminary analysis and final findings are concluded. The chapter starts with brief overview of the results with regard to the sample as well as constructs and continues with brief statements and conclusions of the main points by finally giving a summary of the findings.

Eventually, the last chapters summarize the key findings of this study and presents the final discussion and conclusion followed by the managerial implications. Last but not least, suggestion and limitation for future research studies are discussed at the end of this chapter.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 The meaning of identity

The roots of the concept of the identity in social discipline date already from the early 50s-60s and it is often differently understood, judged, and applied in science, as there is no clear distinction of its meaning (Brubaker and Cooper, 2000).

Originally, the concept of “identity” as Kohli (2000) cities was pointed out from Erikson (1956) who says that, identity as a concept exists for the purpose of understanding one’s own development throughout the lifespan. He considered the continual stages of identity as balance response to multiple crises that occur in the process of becoming adult to getting old. Essentially, it is about some particular facts regarding a person which are related to shifts that happen during the lifetime by which one attains and creates a unified whole or a single self. Thus, identity is a “psychological concept of the ‘self’ and the psychoanalytic concept of the ‘I’ (Kohli, 2000, p. 115).

However, what the notion of identity represents and what the difference is regarding the self-concept is in many cases mixed due to similarities between those two. The notion of the self-concept is related to the thoughts, personal perception or even the evaluation one has concerning oneself. The notion of identity includes almost all aspects and unique attributes which an individual possesses and gathers during the lifespan with which one differentiate him/herself from others (Willis, 2013).

Despite the complexity which is hidden in the creation of individuals self-identity many social psychologists researched and highlighted various core aspects related to personal identity formation such as gender, religion, age, or notion (Waechter, 2014, p. 103).

In addition, Brewer (1991, p. 476) defines personal identity as the “*individuated self - those characteristics that differentiate one individual from others within a given social context*”. Moreover, the term identity and what identity in fact represents, has grabbed the attention of many scholars and there exists wide range of definitions, which explain its significance (Abdelal et al., 2011). Brewer and Gardner (1996, p. 84) highlight the distinctions between three levels of self-construal namely “*the individual level*” which distinguishes one individual from others, “*the relational self*” which is the self-concept created from connections and relations with similar others and “*the group level*” which represents the collective self.

Moreover, individual's identity is commonly "situational", in other words individuals identify themselves according to the circumstances they face and are identified from others in the same way. On the other hand, collective identities are more intense and long-lasting, meaning they do not undergo quick changes (Smith, 1992, p. 59).

2.1.2 Identity formation and development stages

Struggling with the question if one's identity is natural or evolves during different periods over time, led many researchers to explore this issue. Hence, they consistently claimed that individual's identity progresses during the course of the life cycle (Willis, 2013 cf. Erikson, 1968; Kroger, 2007; Phinney, 1989; Waterman, 1982).

As already mentioned above, Erikson's (1968) identity development model theorized the identity formation involving eight periods of the lifecycle from birth to getting old. He suggested that the adolescent phase plays a fundamental role on identity formation as at this point in life individuals recognize their status in society and personalize the viewpoint about themselves (Willis, 2013, p. 39). However, other researchers argue that cultural shifts transform the identity formation procedure (Willis, 2013, p. 44 cf. Arnett, 2000).

Compatible and along with Erikson philosophy, which emphasizes the essential role of identity with regard to lifespan process, Grotevant (1987) established a model referring to identity formation by paying specific attention to the concept of identity exploration (Grotevant, 1987, p. 203). The framework was based on four key factors which aimed to highlight the procedure of identity formation. Namely:

- the role of individual characteristics (abilities and orientations)
- the identity process on specific domains (occupation, ideology, values, relationships)
- the context of development (bilateral role of society, family members, colleagues)
- the interdependencies among developments in the different identity domains (Grotevant, 1987, p. 205).

Highlighting the personality component, the author considered the following attributes which occur to be associated with identity exploration:

1. Self-esteem

Self-esteem is the sense of appraisal concerning personal value affects the individual's choices in the decision with respect to chances, opportunities, and evaluation of alternatives. High self-esteem triggers the motivation and interest to become involved with the world and could influence identity exploration (Grotevant, 1987, p. 206).

2. Self-monitoring

Explains the way with which individuals establish their personal social circle. Persons with high self-monitoring behavior highlight the importance of their personal performance. They tend to look after their self-image and are a bit delicate when facing a social environment in comparison to low self-monitoring individuals who are attached less to feedback (Grotevant, 1987, p. 206).

3. Ego-resilience

Describes the extent of familiarizing with an unfamiliar and possible shifting situation. In a personal manner, individuals with a low ego-resilience are less likely to familiarize and adapt themselves in comparison to high ego-resilience individuals who are more open too adapting to the surrounding environment (Grotevant, 1987, p. 207, cf. Block and Block, 1980).

4. Openness to experience

Considers the aspect of individual characteristics and qualities across which persons vary (Grotevant 1987, p. 207).

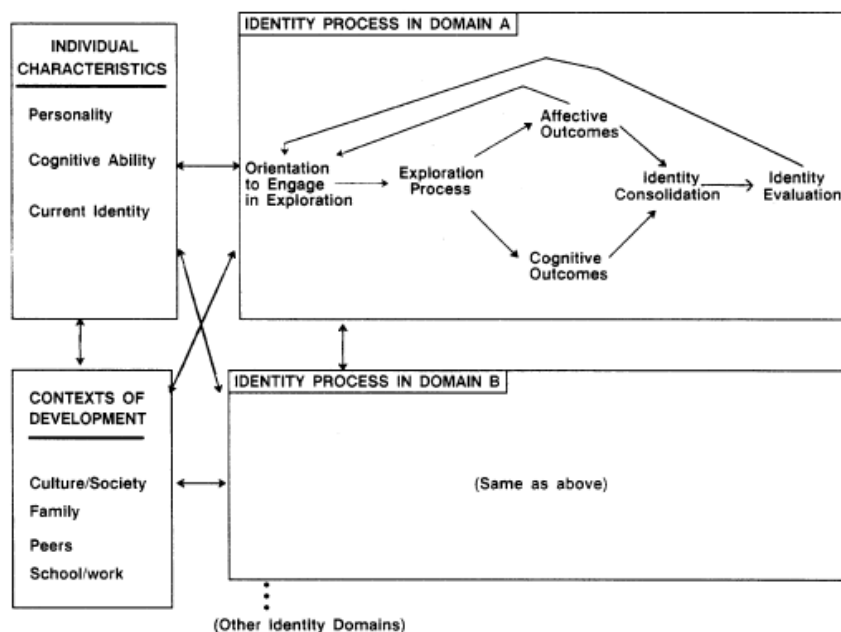


Figure 1: A process model of identity formation (Grotevant, 1987, p. 205).

Therefore, the author argues that the concept of identity and the way identity is developed is a conjoined process of society, culture, school, family, friends, work, and colleagues. He further highlights that the creation of identity is “*culturally bounded*” as people have preferences and can choose between alternatives with regard to future career principles, morals, and relations. All this serves to the process of identity formation since those factors determine and shift expectations and beliefs. In advance, he claims that family has a crucial role in the creation of the self-hood during the adolescence phase. In the later stages, peers, school, work environment, economic status, social interactions play a significant role in the identity formation (Grotevant, 1987, p. 215).

2.2 Social identity theory

Social identity theory tries to explain the perception of oneself with regard to individual characteristics, individuals’ social categorization and identification as opposed to others. Considering oneself as part of a specific social group where individuals designate their identity based on the in-group which reflects and is quite alike themselves represents the social identities from a social identity theory point of view (Stets & Burke, 2000).

As Tajfel (1978) pointed out, in-group members are those individuals who feel related and possess similar attitudes with other members of that group and classify or designate other persons as outsiders or out-group. This identification contributes to members’ in-group relation, connection, and perceived support, which indeed changes the way in which a person, conducts his/her own behavior particularly toward the out-group (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). Further research in social psychology revealed that participants as in-group representatives are perceived very alike with each other compared to individuals belonging to the out-group (Tajfel, 1969). This further helps them to achieve a sense of self-esteem. Moreover, they see their in-group as superior, differentiate themselves from outgroups and in the end results in a in-group favoritism that makes them improve their own self-perception (Brown, 2000).

2.2.1 Definitions and evaluation of social identity

Social identity explains the reflection and opinion we have towards ourselves and it links our participation in a particular social group with the identity we create. Moreover, it also explains the approach we have towards other people by differentiating and categorizing them into other groups which we usually consider as inferior (Hannum, 2007). One attention-grabbing definition regarding social identity is for sure the one from

Tajfel (1978). He defined social identity as *“the part of an individual’s self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership to a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership”* (Tajfel 1978, p. 63).

One further definition says that social identity is a result of social communications as it is created via social interactions (Guan & So, 2016, p. 3, cf. Scott, Corman, & Cheney, 1998). However, there have been different distinctions from social science researchers regarding identity. Brown (2015), highlights the importance of identity in work setting where among others he categorizes identities in social identities, personal and role identities. In a wide scope of definitions, Wendt (1992, p. 397) claims that identities are strong and durable and represent the beliefs and expectations that individuals have about their self’s. He further argues that individual identities and their dedication to it, differs as for example like brother, son, or even multiple identities as “sovereign”. However, indeed they all represent a social definition which indicates the view they have and keep concerning themselves and others (Wendt, 1992, p. 397). In addition, Abdelal et al., (2001) argues that social identity represents the ideas, beliefs, and principles that an individual would hold to differentiate himself/herself in the society. Hence, he also points out that gender, class, race, religion etc. are the categories of identities that are mostly researched (Abdelal et al., 2001, p. 7).

Hooper (1976), specified that social identity has the possibility to forecast and give a reason for the diversity of social behavior. According to him, the definition of social identity provided the response to self-inquiry dilemma. Being a member and part of a specific group or society like for example part of a church, nationality group, social class etc. defines individual’s social identity (Hooper, 1976, p. 155).

Furthermore, personal identity and group identity is significantly related with how individuals evolve their social identity. For example, an individual’s social identity could be related to his/her workplace and to what this organization represents or stands for. Organizational identification is indicated by self-perceptions of an individual with the organization, which also contributes to organization welfare since its members provide lasting support, devotion, and commitment to it (Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001, p. 393). Nevertheless, one’s social identity can be also influenced from personal workplace, work divisions and colleague alliance (Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001, p. 393, cf. Mael and Ashforth, 1992). In a non-work environment, social identity is most likely

to be influenced from social interactions, economic status, the social group the individuals belong to and culture (Grotevant, 1987; Tajfel & Turner, 2001).

In their paper, Brewer and Gardner (1996) explain the concept of self-understanding in rapport to one's personal relation with others. They differentiate between two identity levels interpersonal and collective identities (common identity) respectively, which as a pair are considered as a continuation of the social self. The main difference between those two is that interpersonal identities are gained from the way persons are closely connected meaning belonging to the same family or group. On the other hand, for collective identities there is no need of kin relationships among members (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). In addition, Worchel (1998) explains the individuals' identity as interpersonal actions of someone distinguishing between oneself and others and the social identity as intergroup attitude in the sense of making distinctions among the concepts of "we" and "them" (Worchel, 1998, cf. Turner, 1981a).

Hence, obviously there is a distinction between the notion of interpersonal and collective identities. As already known, people tend to lean towards creating an interpersonal self-definition or they have an inclination concerning a specific characteristic or behavior. In most of the cases individuals are associated with groups or by other individuals who try to categorize them into various social groups (Ellemers et al., 2002).

Reed et al., (2012), while explaining the differences between social and personal identity claims that persons usually recognize their participation in multiple identities in various stages (e.g. someone who is parenting is potentially also a colleague, a partner or chief despite the fact that those identities occur to be different). Even though, there are some minor distinctions between role identity, social identity, and self-identity, the authors believe that the baseline of all of them is the same (Reed et al., 2012 p. 312 c.f. Epp & Price, 2008; Dong & Tian, 2009; Deaux et al., 1995).

Hence, academics considered sorts of identity as equally similar. Only lately, researchers started to show doubts about the homogeneousness of social categories and pointed out the variety among them (Deaux, et al., 1995).

To conclude, from this broad scope of definitions and explanations we could claim that overall social identity strives to respond the enquiry and question of *Who am I?* (Turner, 1982). It links it to self-participation in a particular social group by social categorizing persons into groups based in similar characteristics to help define who they are for themselves and others (Stets & Burke, 2000; Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

The social identification brings to light the qualities, which attribute to the group an individual belongs and behaves. This are followed by making a social comparison by appraising and comparing one's own group with others (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Stets & Burke, 2000; Hannum, 2007).

2.2.2 Identity principles

Although, many researchers point out the importance of identity in the way customers conduct their behavior Reed et al., (2012), claims the lack of a consistency regarding the definition and principles which determinate the drivers of this behavior. In his attempt to find a solution for this issue, he began by defining identity as: *"any category label to which a consumer self-associates either by choice or endowment"* (Reed et al., 2012, p. 310). Based on the review the following five principles he claims that researchers are thought to benefit with regard to identity's further development (Reed et al., 2012, p. 310-312). These five principles are:

- **Identity salience**

Identities are relatively long lasting and organized. A social self is also supposed to be structured and well defined. Thoits (1983), references the idea of Stryker (1980) and Stryker and Serpe (1982, 1983) who recommended "salience hierarchy" as a way of organizing identities where salience is identified as *"the probability that a given identity will be invoked across a variety of situations"*, which indeed means the commitment one has to an identity (Thoits 1983, p. 176).

One of the causes of identity salience is that people are encouraged to categorize themselves over identity criteria, which indeed is a comparison between themselves and others. The base of this categorization may be evoked from various self-categorized identities and cues, which involve symbols, words etc. related to in or out-group. These then play a role in identity salience and growth (Forehand et al., 2002).

The setting or conditions from which a person is surrounded may perhaps also have an effect on identity salience. McGuire et al., (1978), while questioning schoolchildren to speak about themselves has found that ethnic identity was salient for children when their ethnic social environment was minor in school. Furthermore, Reed et al., (2012) also claimed that determinants that may boost the salience of a specific identity would raise the likelihood that this particular identity will affect individual's attitudes. Some of

those factors are cues and group symbols likewise the individual's social environment (Reed et al., 2012, p. 311-313).

- **Identity association**

As there are determinants which could potentially drive the salient identities, one approach towards achieving that could be via associative transfers. Reed et al., (2012) references some studies, which have shown that individuals spontaneously and automatically respond in a positive way to cues and stimuli linked with their in-group as this transfer brings positive effects regarding self-concept (Reed et al., 2012, p. 315).

- **Identity relevance**

Identities often represent individuals personally held beliefs regarding themselves influencing the way they act and categorize themselves in groups. Reed et al., (2012) stated that individuals have a tendency to conduct their actions in the harmony to their in-group categorization and those will be settled and have a long-lasting effect which will then help their identification within the group (Reed et al., 2012, p. 316).

- **Identity verification**

Individuals often aspire to achieve a satisfactory or even perfect representation of the identity they have, and they strive for a reaction or feedback from outside regarding their performance and enhancement concerning ideal representation of that identity (Reed et al., 2012, p. 317).

- **Identity conflict**

Researchers have shown that one person may hold multiple identities and those identities may not always be in harmony with each other. Identity conflict says that individuals are able to decrease conflicts within diverse identities by managing their "relative salience" in case they are not easy to be solved they will "*invoke self-regulatory processes to restore balance*" (Reed et al., 2012, p. 318).

- **Identity centrality**

In general, scholars agree that there are several advantages one can benefit from possessing multiple identities. One has the opportunity to be involve in different social ac-

tivities and enhance their personal development and capabilities. The psychological importance that an individual is supposed to commit regarding a given identity it is described as identity centrality (Settles, 2004, p. 487- 488). In other words, centrality requires from individuals to focus directly in a principal or main identity and inquires their awareness regarding this main identity of being of great significance (Murnieks et al., 2014).

However, central identities may be complex for individuals to manage in case they face obstacles to integrate them into their lives (Settles, 2004).

Stryker and Serpe (1994), argue that both salience and centrality are key components on predicting behavior.

2.3 Multiple identities

In general, people can hold multiple identities, can be part of various social groups and hold multiple roles. For example, a woman beside her role as a mother, she might have the role of a wife, a daughter, a cousin, a colleague etc. Moreover, she can identify herself with her sport and recreation club, her job, profession etc. (Settles, 2004).

Many theorists put forward the advantages of holding multiple identities such as the chance for social interaction, opportunity to exchange knowledge, improvements in economic status and so on (Barnett and Baruch, 1985 ; Marks, 1977 ;Martire et al., 2000; Settles, 2004) In spite of that, incorporating multiple identities may result challenging as they may interfere and may also be in conflict with each other (Reed et al., 2012; Settles, 2004).

However, identities can also be compatible, and individuals may possess multiple identities as long as they are congruent with each other (Hofman, 1988; Burke, 2003).

When shifting from one identity to another, a psychological and cognitive use of individuals resources will probably be required, depending on how homogeneous or distinct culture these identities have (e.g. the process of shifting from " *being a parent and an executive* " (dissimilar culture) to " *being a parent and a spouse* " (similar culture) (Settle, 2004, p. 488). Schild (2001, p. 336), argues that people should be able to shift from one identity to another depending on the situation. Individuals who hold multiple identities, will seek to effectively use and shift to those identities that they may find to be congruent depending on the circumstances and the frame of reference (Oyserman, 2009; Reed et al., 2012; Schild, 2001).

Sociology of immigration argues that, there is no contradictory premises or any conflict between individuals host-country identity and their country of origin identity (Teney et al., 2016 p. 2197). Favell et al., (2011, p. 15), claims that it is possible to hold multiple identities and incorporate EU identity to individuals' collective identities as long as these identities are nested (e.g. Austrian identity is nested with EU identity).

Along these lines, one can argue that non-EU immigrant's Austrian identity might not be nested with their country of origin identity. However, Teney et al., (2016, p. 2197) found that, non-EU immigrants identified themselves strongly with host-country identity as well as EU identity. He also found, that ethnic, national and EU identity do not contradict each other. Hence, the fact is that a great number of consumers these days hold multiple identities (Zhang und Khare, 2009) which consistently shape their attitudes and behaviors. However, this thesis investigates multiple identities on geographical terms. In the sense of understanding individuals' identifications with national, global as well as with the EU identity and how these multiple identities may or may not interact and consequently shape behavior.

2.4 Location-based identities

Considering the rush boost towards globalization we could argue that the cross-cultural perspective of individuals has changed, and the majority of consumers nowadays possess multiple social identities, which obviously effects their personal attitude and behavior (Zhang and Khare, 2009). Arnett (2002), while exploring the effect of globalization on identities from a psychological point of view argues that globalization indeed transforms the identity of individuals. As a result, individuals create a "bicultural identity" which consequently divides their identity between local identity which is "rooted" and global identity with which they feel related (Arnett, 2002, p. 777). As Zhang & Khare (2009) demonstrated, location base identification shapes consumers' behavior and this influences their attitude with regard to product preferences. Domestic products were preferred more from individuals who possessed national identity as opposed to the one who hold global identity, which found global products as more appealing (Zhang and Khare, 2009).

Moreover, multiple self-identification from individuals is also driven from the region they are resident as they often identify themselves with that region or nation. It means they identify themselves with the local community likewise broader entities such as global identification (identifying with the whole society all over the world) or as citizen

and part of European Union (Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2010; Arnett, 2002). Multiple based- location identities appear to play a remarkable role in shaping consumers behavior and attitudes. In the below section a broader explanation of ethnic, national, global likewise EU identity will be further explained as this thesis is also focused on finding the simultaneous link and the effect of these identities on product preferences.

2.4.1 Ethnic identity

To achieve a more comprehensive sense on what ethnic identity represents, a more general understanding and distinction between the term of ethnicity and ethnic identity is needed. Even that the concept of ethnicity it is explained and referred in different context across various disciplines, one of the earliest explanations of the term is the one from Max Weber. He associated the concept with a group of people considered to be close together who share customs or have a close physical resemblance with each other (Ratcliffe, 2013, p. 305 cf. Weber, 1968, p. 389). Horowitz (1985), view ethnicity as a group of society who share “common origin, skin color, appearance, religion and/or language” (Ratcliffe, 2013, p. 305).

On the other hand, ethnic identity is defined by Phinney et al., (2001) as: “*an individual’s sense of self in terms of membership in a particular ethnic group*” (Phinney et al., 2001, p. 496). In other words, ethnic identity includes several individual or group shared attributes and values, which encompass various dimensions. It involves a feeling of belonging likewise individual identification, devotion, and attachment with regard to the specific ethnic group that a person belongs to and has a common origin, culture, language etc. (Phinney et al., 2001, Ratcliffe, 2013).

Phinney (1989), emphasizes that the phases to accomplish ethnic identity formation progresses throughout a process has its roots in the early stages of childhood. It begins with the way they think and behave by moving towards the period of searching and considerations to finally achieve the closing stage of obtaining the ethnic identity by the time of adolescence. Moreover, the ethnic identity development model from Smith (1992) also supports the idea that the formation of ethnic identity is a lifetime and long-lasting process starting from infancy up to adulthood.

Even though, much of the attention has been devoted by researchers with regard to racial identity as a main topic of concern leaving behind the term and process of ethnic identity evolution, most of them however argue that ethnic identity has a crucial role on the psychological welfare of individuals (Phinney and Chavira, 1992).

Ethnic identity is individual's self-categorization and perception in terms of the membership to their reference ethnic group. On the other hand, national identity consists a more complex nature, as it incorporates a feeling of belonging, attachment, and positive affiliation towards an extensive community (Phinney et al., 2001).

In the research conducted by Phinney & Alipuria (1990), which involved some college students, the results revealed that ethnicity was evaluated "as a central identity concern" by even dominating the politics and was appraised in the same degree as religion (Phinney & Chavira, 1992, p. 272 cf. Phinney & Alipuria, 1990). Smith (1991, p. 181), on the other hand, highlighted the importance of ethnic group by describing it as a "reference group" which consist a certain number of individuals who "share common history and culture, similar physical features and values", that distinct them as a group. Additionally, he also refers to the Breton and Pinard (1960) findings, who argue that belonging to an ethnic group is not a result of individual preferences but as individuals are born in a particular ethnic group the combined mutual symbols and characteristics influence their emotional attachment and relation towards that group. He further argues that ethnic identity gives a "sense of belonging and continuity for an individual" (Smith 1991, p. 182 cf. Breton & Pinard, 1960).

2.4.2 National identity

Researchers generally agree that national identity involves some common key features of a nation like culture, history, a set of principle and beliefs that connect the residents with each other in their native land and distinct them from other nations (Smith, 1991; Guibernau, 2004; Clark, 1990; Huntington, 1997; Keillor and Tomas, 1999).

Guibernau (2004, p. 133) reviewing the traditional approach of Smith (1991, p. 9) adopts his definition on national identity which claims that national identity 'involves some sense of political community, history, territory, patria, citizenship, common values, and traditions'.

In essence, national identity represents the individual's spiritual attachment, affinity, kin connection and unique feelings as well as values people attach towards those feelings with regard to their own nation. Basically, it represents the "subjective significance of an inner bond with the nation" (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015, p. 28; cf. Blank and Schmidt, 2003, p. 296; Feather, 1981; Tajfel, 1978).

Moreover, the concept is mostly developed in the relation to the cultural distinctiveness of a notion where the national identity turns into the “set of meanings” possessed by a certain culture (Keillor and Tomas, 1999 p. 67).

On the other hand, Smith (1992), argues that national identification is categorized as a type of collective identities, meaning it is long lasting and more powerful. Moreover, by describing the term of “nation” as individuals who are bounded by sharing the “same region, culture, memories and the same legal rights and duties”, he further claims that national identifications are multidimensional, but still comprise distinguishable “ethnic, legal, territorial and political components” (Smith, 1992, p. 60).

Furthermore, it is known, that individuals have different opinions, feelings, and thoughts about their nation. As Dekker et al., (2003, p. 347) states, national attitude and one’s personal attachment and affiliation towards their homeland varies and can be strong, moderate, or extreme positive or negative. Additionally, he adds some of the positive attitudes one could possibly have towards their nation like: “the feeling of belonging (nationalism), the national link and pride, national preference and superiority (in relation to other nations) and as a lack of positive attitude, negative attitude occur and are described as “*national alienation* (not feeling at home in one’s country).

Furthermore, *national shame* (being ashamed of one’s people and country), *national disgust* (being disgusted with one’s people and country), and *national hate* (hating one’s people and country) are also involved” (Dekker et al., 2003, p. 347).

Cinpoes (2008, p. 5) claims, that regardless the tendencies to neglect the role of culture concerning national identity development process, the culture of a nation is established and regulated in institutional manner (standardized language, educational system) and it plays a fundamental role as the process of national identity formation is a “*political product of elites*”.

2.4.3 Global identity

The worldwide economic and social development as well as the intense use of modern technology, telecommunication and mass media influenced the interconnections around the world by connecting countries and therefore shifting the culture beyond national borders. Such a dominant development of globalization and various cultural connections has influenced the individuals’ identities likewise their opinions and judgments (Arnett, 2002).

The global consciousness encompasses also the change on identity where people identify themselves beyond being a member of a nation but more as a global citizen and part of the entire human race, which results to the concept of global identity (Arnett 2002; Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Zhang & Khare, 2009; Guo, 2013).

Global identity entails the beliefs, perceptual attitudes, and the confidence of consumers in the positive attributes of globalization. Thus, these individuals are curious for global events and acknowledge more the shared features among individuals around the world as oppose to dissimilarities. In other words, consumers with global identity *“feel that they belong to the entire world and identify with a global lifestyle”* (Tu et al., 2012, p. 36; Arnett, 2002).

Hence, the global identity seems to have evolved because of globalization, which then guided the presence of global consumer orientation embracing global culture and identity as essential components. This then influenced and changed the consumer's consumption attitudes and habits (Guo, 2013). Thus, there exists a considerable group of consumers who categorize themselves as cosmopolitans (Reed et al., 2012) and are identified with global identity which turns to have a positive effect on the consumers judgments regarding the global brands' (Zhang & Kare, 2009). As Guo (2013, p. 5) highlights, consumers who strongly identify with global identity are more fascinated by global brands as they *“tend to view these brands as more similar to them, which helps improve their sense of being distinctive from local identifiers and brings prestige perception”*.

On the other hand, the changes on consumer behaviors which are developed gradually from their identification as cosmopolitans rise above local settings. Their personal attachment towards cross cultural settings are more appreciated for them as 'citizens of the world', which in turn also effects the extent to which they become accustomed to the global lifestyle (Grinstein & Wathieu, 2012, p. 337).

2.4.4 European identity

Originally, the idea about a European community was considered already in late 1940s and was revolved around the common economic, social, and political interest between European countries which then resulted in the inception of European Union (Dinan, 2004).

Yet, EU has existed for 26 years, and various researchers argue that people living in one of the member states have developed to an extent the European identity and have a bond

with it, irrespective of their national identity (Duchesne & Frognier, 1995; Cinnirella, 1997; Schild, 2001; Diamantopoulos et al., 2017).

As a supranational government, the European Union has undertaken concrete attempts to nurture the EU identity by investing roughly €160 billion in projects that promote the shared EU identity (European Commission, 2018).

As already mentioned, it is the sense of the shared values, shared passed history, symbols and cultural factors that generate the identity of a group (Grotevant, 1987; Tajfel, 1978, Reed et al., 2012; Miller, 2012).

As a result, citizens living in one of the European member states can experience emotional affiliation towards EU along with EU preferences and EU liking. Building on the magnitude of this attachment, a collective EU identity could be included in their self-concept (Dekker et al., 2003, p. 348; Miller, 2012).

Even though, the European Union is established more than 25 years ago, there are still Eurosceptics that doubt in the existence and the importance of a mutual EU identity (Bruter, 2004), especially now after the Brexit. Under the notion of a common European identity, the European commission made substantial investment in projects that embed and promote the benefits, or more precisely that highlight the significance of European identity (European Commission, 2018).

However, even though the literature has recognized the presence of European identity, inconsistent and contradictory opinions exist from the side of researchers regarding this issue. Weachter (2016, p. 630), claims that the EU identity it's "*not easily adopted*" as the social behavior of a society, culture and media consumption contribute significantly in the creation of identities. Furthermore, the emergence of various types of identities goes beyond the enquiry how strong or multiple one's identity should be but it's more about considering the reasons why several types of identities are correlated and the factors which lead to their development. The author further states that "*local, national and European identities do not contradict each other but are complementary*" (Weachter, 2016, p. 632 cf. Bruter 2004; Castano, 2004).

Moreover, Risse (2005) indicates that national identity plays a major role in understanding European identity. In the meantime, he argues that the state of the EU and national identity to occur together without difficulties or conflicts differs by country (Risse, 2005, p. 305; Weachter, 2016). Risse (2005, p. 301), argues that the political elite of some member states differ in their support for European integration and identification. Germany has been more enthusiastic to reinforce EU identification as they aimed to

demonstrate that they succeeded to overcome past nationalists. In contrast, the British political elite refused to endorse European integration and were more willing to stand for a “unitary state”. Besides, not just the political elite is suspicious about a European identification in Great Britain. Cinnirella (1997), while exploring EU and national identity among students in United Kingdom and Italy has found that British students see EU identity as a threat to their national identity. On the other hand, completely dissimilar attitudes were found amongst Italian students whose EU identity was even stronger than their national identity. This attitude of British respondents could be explained from the negative mass media influence and the negative political debates of British elite with regard to the EU identity. In most of the cases, the EU identity was represented as incompatible with their national identity (Cinnirella, 1997; Risse, 2005).

On the other hand, Weachter (2016) found out that it was easier for the young generation of the countries such as e.g. Slovakia, Hungary, Bratislava to identify themselves with the European Union. This because youths related the economic and social benefits of EU to the chances, they will have to be more successful. The older generations felt more closer to Europe in geographical terms whereas they didn’t show any affiliation or attachment towards the EU identity.

Other authors suppose that national identity hinders the creation of European identity as identities are rivals and the relationship to the nation is stronger as opposed to individual’s attachment towards Europe (Smith 1992; Jiménez et al., 2004). In addition, Jiménez et al., (2004) used Eurobarometer data to test three theories, which according to the authors are related to the rise of European identity. The first approach was from a cultural theory point of view where identities are understood in basis of “*cultural factors created due to an historical process*” (Jiménez et al., 2004, p. 1). In this context, national culture, economic and other factors should not be fundamental on arise of European identity as this would lead to replacement of national identities. The second approach was based on instrumental theory where both national and European identities are considered based on “*calculated individual self-interest*” (Jiménez et al., 2004, p. 1) meaning the more ones’ country lacks in development the more likely is that its residents feel European. Whereas the third theoretical approach was, the civic theory where identities are understood based “*on agreement over rules for peaceful political co-existence*” meaning one would consider the shared values and commitment to EU membership (Jiménez et al., 2004 p. 2-4). However, the end results indicated that culture plays a significant role regarding one’s personal relation to national identity as individuals’ con-

nection is stronger with national rather than with European identity but that does not indicate that EU identity is inferior as it also incorporates several cultural elements. Moreover, findings imply that EU identity is based on “*instrumental elements*” (e.g. common currency, the right of free movement) whereas national identity more in “*culture factors*” (e.g. language, culture) which makes them “*compatible*” (p. 10). Nevertheless, authors concluded that in countries with strong national identification (such as Greece or Great Britain) the increase of European identity may be more difficult (Jiménez et al., 2004, p. 17 and p. 16-18).

On the other hand, other authors conclude that it is not the national identity, but it is the nationalism, which causes the lack of progress regarding European identity (Weachter, 2016 cf. Cinpoes, 2008). Nationalism is defined as a “*perception of national superiority and an orientation toward national dominance*” (Kosterman and Feshbach, 1989, p. 271) contrary to the national identity which is more related with attachment, common custom’s and values one shares with its nation Guibernau (2004, p. 133; Smith 1991, p.9). According to Jamieson (2002), for some parts of the European society, EU identity is perceived as more conceptual, meaning it does not necessarily encompass a feeling of belonging. He further argues, that youths who have the chance to engage themselves with political and social issues are more likely to support or encourage further the global citizenship as opposed to European citizenship.

Petithomme (2008, p. 33) also deliberates the fact that most Europeans do not have the feeling of belonging and that for most of them, EU represents just an “*abstract concept*” whereas national identity remains the “*locus of social identification*”. In addition, according to statistics half of the EU society believed that their voice is not considered and 75% did not had the sense of being involved in EU processes (Petithomme 2008, p. 33 c.f. Eurobarometer 66, 2017). As such, the author argues that EU identity could possibly progress only if new cohorts gain necessary knowledge regarding European Union and participate more in social and political activities (Petithomme, 2008, p. 34-35).

Moreover, exploring further the existence of EU identity other barometer surveys in the late 70’s distinguishing between local, region or country basis asked their respondents about the feeling of belongingness to a particular geographic area. Participants there had the opportunity to rank their preferences and this resulted in similar answers across countries. “Country” or “town” were more preferred and in fact, town was ranked often in the first place as oppose to the country (Duchesne and Frogner, 1995).

However, researchers later found out that in some EU countries the fact that individuals felt proud with their nationality encouraged the development of EU identity. Therefore, it has been said that if an individual completely identifies himself/herself with national country will also identify himself/herself with the EU (Sinnott & Niedermayer, 1995 p. 203-204).

Moreover, socio-demographic variables play a significant role in shaping the attitude one has regarding feeling European. Advanced educational level followed by high-income level were leading influencers on European Union identification. Indeed, gender and rural/urban living areas also played a role in people's responses where male individuals likewise individuals who were living in urban areas felt more related with European identity (Sinnott & Niedermayer, 1995; Duchesne and Frognier, 1995).

Furthermore, Schild (2001) believed that EU identity is most likely to lack in stability and strong emotions as opposed to national identity, as the approach one has towards Europe tends to vary. He further argues that the attempts to give a significant meaning to the European citizenship concept by incorporating "*a binding charter of fundamental rights into the Treaties*" will possibly hinder the strength of EU identity (Schild, 2001, p. 349). Hence, various opinions exist with regard on how individuals perceive the EU ranging from very encouraging to very unenthusiastic. However, recent research implies that individuals acquire some kind of affection towards EU and consider it as unified society, which in turn converts to an EU identity (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017).

Moreover, the researchers have shown that for non- EU citizens the EU is perceived as "*international leadership entity*". In addition, Diamantopoulos et al., (2017), in his qualitative study with the EU citizens found related results and pointed out that from consumer point of view "*EU represents an aggregate of individual countries bonded together and constitutes a distinct entity in peoples' minds*" (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017, p. 8). Furthermore, as already mentioned above the global spirit changed the individual's cross-cultural perspective together with people's identity (Zhang and Khare, 2009).

Yet, when it comes to European identity only currently researchers started to further investigate and highlight its role on shaping consumers behavior (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017).

2.5 European Union and immigration

Initially, the idea towards a European community was considered already in the late 1940s as after the World War II people were willing to consider the possibilities for future peace and corporation between different European countries. In the beginning of its inception only few countries decide to join together in creating the union, however, EU emerged fast and until now important agreement were achieved which reduced economic, politic, and social security barriers among membership countries. Nowadays, EU operates globally, and its citizens do not face obstacles to work, travel or live in the membership countries (Dinan, 2004).

One of the crucial steps in the creation of European Union is it consider to be the foundation of European Economic Community (EEC) known as Treaty of Rome which was signed in the March of 1957 and it is distinguished mostly as a “*common market*” (Schildhaus, 1989, p. 550).

However, using only this economic integration approach could be considered as risky for the European Union entity due to the fact that the cultural integration and a common sense of belonging is underdeveloped (Martinelli, 2005; Petithomme, 2008). Nonetheless, these days the EU community it is classified and perceived from the society as a separate unit (Castano et al., 2003) with which its residents may identify or have a feeling they belong to (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017).

Yet, even though many researchers highlight the existence and the role of EU identity (Duchesne and Frognier 1995; Bruter, 2004; Castano, 2004; Zhang and Khare, 2009; Weachter, 2016), questions with regard to the significance of EU identity remain relevant especially as Eurosceptics tend to doubt in the so-called European identity (Bruter, 2004; Schildhaus, 1989).

In addition, migration flow within the EU due to different political, social, and economic reasons increased continuously in the past years. The Eurostat (2019), statistics indicate that during 2016, 4.4 million people immigrated to one of the EU-28 member states. Yet, among these 2.0 million young citizens under the age of 28 years old, were coming from non-EU countries. Moreover, in 2018 the number of non-EU immigrants became more intense. According to Eurostat (2019), 22.3 Million non-EU immigrants were register in the beginning of 2018.

Obviously, the model by Erikson (1968) has conceptualized the procedure of identity formation considering it as constructing process, which occurs throughout our whole

life. Hence, immigrant's identity will also flow in a transitory and evolutionary phase while trying to balance the differences between the culture of the host-country and culture of its own heritage.

Undoubtedly, immigrants face delicate acculturation process during their attempt to integrate and adopt in the host society, therefore as a consequence their identity is challenged. Their national identity likewise their cultural pride when they arrive in the host country is already established and understanding how identity functions is not easy phenomenon to study. However, their enthusiasm to adapt and fit in, in the new society is also strong (Phinney et al., 2001; Phinney, 1998).

Nevertheless, research studies with regard to acculturation process show that it is most likely that immigrant choose integration (Berry and Sam, 1997; Phinney et al., 2001). This means, immigrants prefer to maintain their own culture heritage while fitting and creating a sense of belonging to the new society (Berry and Sam, 1997; Phinney et al., 2001). In addition, immigrants often struggle when it comes to merging their national identity with other subgroups due to reasons like politics, religion, and other values, which may lead to one finding oneself both pro and against those different discourses of identification (Josiassen, 2011). Moreover, interfering with individuals from various racial groups may increase intergroup differences and disagreements therefore, a common identity may be able to overcome those barriers and perhaps improve their integration (Transue, 2007). Hence, Europe is seen as multinational entity, comprising various nations, thus an EU identification among immigrants is possible (Agirdag et al., 2016). Moreover, social interactions and communication with host society is able to boost immigrant's national identification and give e sense of belonging (Phinney et al., 1998; Kundani, 2007; Transue, 2007).

Therefore, we could argue that the coexistence of individuals with various cultural backgrounds is possible and the immigrant's policy of the host country plays a major role in their identity choice and integration (Grosfoguel, 1997; see also Phinney et al., 2001).

3. Research model and hypothesis

The following chapter aims fundamentally to describe the proposed researched model of this study by highlighting the basic relationships within the underlying model.

Throughout this chapter, the hypothesis will be developed, and different product origins will be used to test them respectively.

It is important to mention that, the aim of this study is mainly to understand the influence of EU identity in shaping preferences of non-EU immigrants for different product origins. It is a generalized focus and distinguishes between domestic and foreign products. As more than one identity can be activated at the same time and have more or less an effect on individual's responses, their impact on consumer product preferences will best investigated simultaneously.

Moreover, SNI is used as moderator to investigate if under its influence European identity has an effect on predicting purchase intentions of domestic and foreign EU products.

3.1 Proposed research model

Up to now, different research models proved the significant role that identities play in shaping our behavior. The proposed research model aims to find out the influence of EU identity on the individuals settled way of thinking towards domestic products, products that are coming from another European Union country and products coming from outside of the European Union, which will then reflect their purchase behavior.

EU identity stands close to the national identity and to a more evasive global identity. Therefore, it is considered to go beyond and have combined aspects of the national and global identity which makes it suitable for domestic and foreign products (Markstrom, 2011; Cinnirella, 1997).

Therefore, the proposed research model suggests that European identity reinforces individual's purchase intentions for different product origins, namely for domestic products, for products coming from another European Union country and those coming from outside of the European Union.

This conceptual model will test the previously developed hypothesis, which are based on the literature review. In addition, the SNI is added to the model as a possible moderator along with other control variables.

To have a clear overview of the research model, see figure 2.

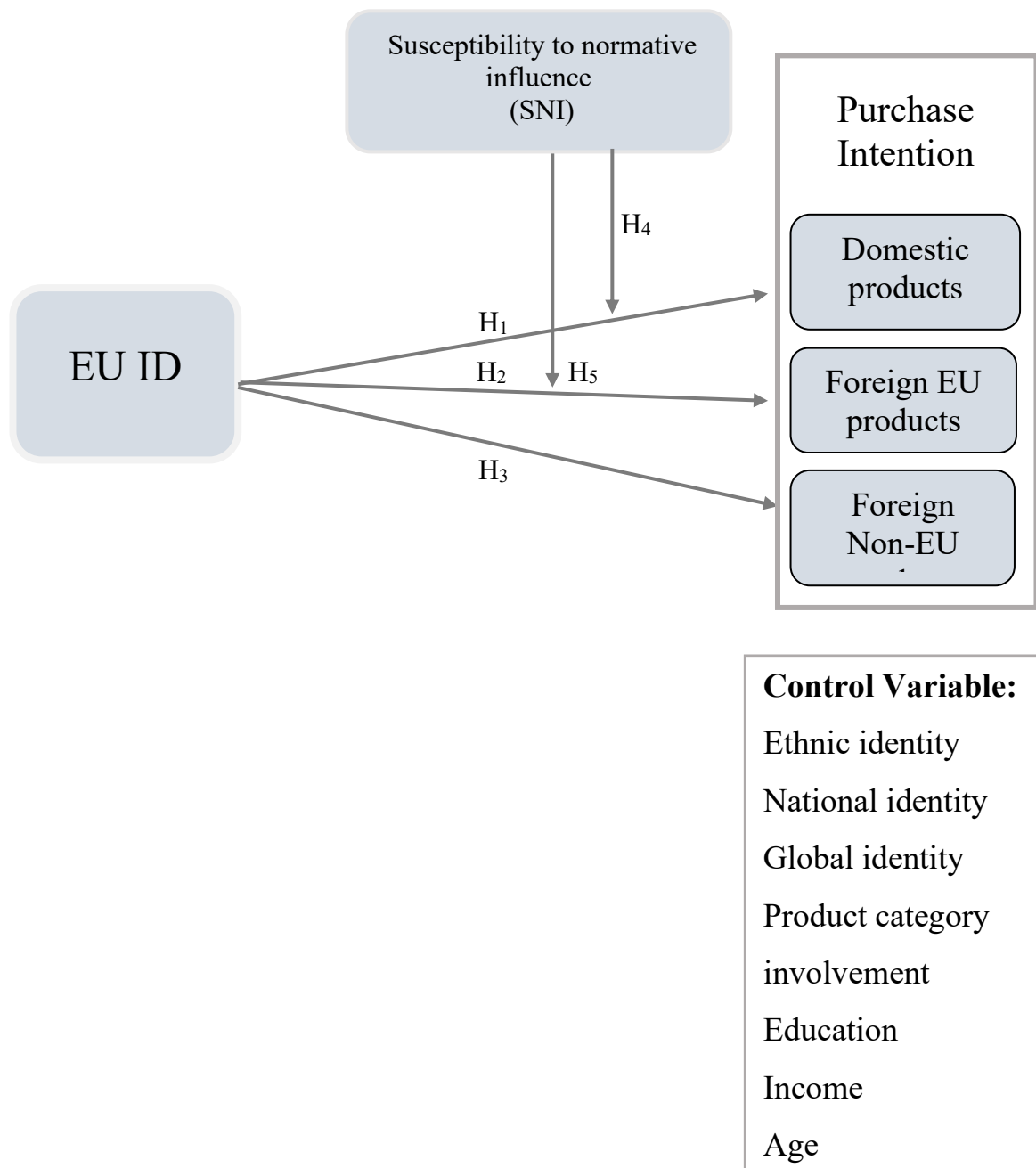


Figure 2: Conceptual model: hypothesized relationships

3.2 Development of hypothesis

Scientifically is often argued that identities can guide individual's behavior. Already from Social identity theory was validated that individuals hold multiple identities at the same time, and can identify themselves with larger groups, which is one of the main aspects of my research model (Settles, 2004; Schild, 2001).

The identity development process from Erikson (1968) , argues that identity formation is a process that occurs throughout the life span. At every stage of the life (from birth to death), individuals encounter different needs and meet other individuals who may influence their behavior and the development of their identity (Willis, 2013 cf. Erikson, 1968; Kroger, 2007; Phinney, 1989; Waterman, 1982).

On the other hand, immigrants come to the host country with an already established identity (Phinney et al., 2001; Phinney, 1998). However, they also come to frequent contact with the native population or with other immigrants due to work, school etc. and these social interactions influence their identity (McAdams, 2001; Grotevant, 1987).

Many researches argue that by learning the language, practicing the traditions of the host society, getting to know the culture of natives, immigrants move gradually towards the identification with the host country (Van Oudenhoven et al., 2006, p. 640; Ramirez, 1984; Miglietta and Tartaglia, 2009). Acculturation literature together with the sociology of immigration theory have shown that immigrants can also hold multiple identities (Favell et al., 2011; Van Oudenhoven et al., 2006; Ramirez, 1984).

On the other hand, researchers already proved the presence of national (host country identification) as well as European identity among non-EU immigrants. Their findings have shown that non-EU immigrants identify themselves with the EU identity even that the strength of this identification is lower in comparison to EU immigrants. When it comes to the identification with the host country, the findings have shown that non-EU immigrants identify themselves also with the host country even though the strength of this identification is lower in comparison to their EU identity (Teney et al., 2016, p. 2197; Van Oudenhoven et al., 2006 p. 297; Di Mauro and Fiket, 2014; Teney and Hanquinet, 2015). This could be due to the fact that EU is perceived as unified society and EU identity is considered to represent a separate identity (Agirdag et al., 2016, p. 286; Diamantopoulos et al., 2017; Erisen, 2017) in comparison to the national identity.

Personal characteristics and individual's self-schema have substantial influence in changing the attitudes and might also shape consumers purchase behavior (Wheeler et

al., 2005; Reed et al., 2012). As Zhang & Khare, (2009) elaborated, holding a particular identity causes differences among individuals when it comes to product preferences with regard to that identity. They also have shown that a higher salience of national identity actually leads to preferences for domestic products whereas higher salience of global identity leads to the preference for global products.

It is supposed, that individual's attitudes and behavior will be shifted in relation to their identification in such a way that if individuals identify themselves with the global identity, they will directly find the global product as more appealing as opposed to the domestic products and vice-versa (see also Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004).

From international marketing perspective Harmon-Kizer et al., (2013) claim that identities are found to impact consumers purchase choices in such a way that their brand selection should corresponded their individual self-concept. The authors explored the role that centrality plays on individuals brand choices and brand relation. Their findings have shown that centrality was crucial for consumers who hold multiple identities, and this may affect the way they connect themselves to items and goods. Attempting to authenticate their self-image, individuals utilize brands to confirm their identities (Harmon-Kizer et al., 2013).

In this context, it is relatively assumed that individuals will tend to give priority to the product origin, which is compatible with the identity that is significantly more important to one's self-view. For example, individuals who hold a strong national identity would rather choose domestic product as oppose to global products (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Zhang & Khare, 2009)

In this way, to see the unique effect of European identity as a main point of this master thesis the national and global identity will be controlled for, as their impact on purchase intentions is already recognized.

Hence, the national identity is closely linked to a particular nation and global identity reaches a broader scope beyond a specific border (Beck, 2004), whereas the European identity is perceived to be a type of supra-national identity as EU member countries often are thought to be one in consumers' judgments (Jamieson, 2002; Castano, Sacchi, & Gries, 2003; Diamantopoulos et al., 2017).

However, despite the fact that EU identity incorporates national and foreign elements, a single identity may become salient or multiple identities may be activated depending on the circumstances. Still, the salience of a particular identity does not exclude the exist-

ence of others and consumers choices might be simultaneously affected (Kohli, 2000; Smith, 1992; Schild, 2001; Cinnirella, 1997).

Hence, EU identity and national identity are seen as complementary constructs, which possess common characteristics (Herz, Diamantopoulos, & Koschate-Fischer, 2015).

In this line, EU identity is expected to influence domestic products preferences.

Similarly, Duchesne and Frognier (1995) also claimed that EU identity integrates both national and global features, therefore, it could be expected that EU identity would positively influence consumers purchase behavior of domestic and foreign products.

Based on the same theoretical approach, similar effects are expected to happen with the purchase intentions of foreign EU products. As multiple identities can coexist and their strength is dependent from the outside circumstances (Duchesne and Frognier, 1995; Schild, 2001) one can argue, that costumers with strong EU identity, will prefer the products coming from a European Union country more.

Moreover, the self-verification theory suggests that individuals seek to maintain a compatible and durable view of themselves and to the social group they belong. This theory assumes that individual's ability to validate how they are perceived by others is a key to accomplish the positive social relation. From this point, individuals incorporate these perceptions into their self-concept and create attitudes that respond and confirm their collective identity (Swann Jr et al., 1992; Swann Jr et al., 2004). As such, while considering the EU products, salience of the EU identity will favor products with the EU origin as there exist a congruency between the EU origin and the EU identity.

On the other hand, Kizgin et al., (2018, p. 327) investigated the attitudes of Turkish immigrants in Netherland with regard to consumption choices of food and entertainment products coming from Netherland and from their country of origin. The findings show that, Turkish immigrants have a tendency to be "bicultural consumers" and do not seek separation in the consumption context. This study has also found that, the adaption of the host country culture and the frequent social interaction with the native population positively impacts the use of the host country products. These findings are also in a line with the Askegaard et al., (2005) findings, who have shown that it is distinctly likely for immigrants consume host country products.

Therefore, the following hypothesis are formulated where it is predicted that:

H1: European identity positively influences purchase intentions for domestic products.

H2: European identity positively influences purchase intentions for foreign EU products.

Highlighting the theory review that a specific identity can become salient, the global identity might become salient while evaluating foreign products because global identity as a construct it is supposed to involve foreign features (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Zhang & Khare, 2009).

On the other hand, there are discussion with regard to understanding the dissimilarities of both concepts (“foreign” and “global”). It has been said that, how the concept of foreignness is perceived, does not stand side by side to that of globalness (Swoboda et al., 2012). However, Winit et al., (2014), argues that in a conceptual context these two notions are quite narrow. From the consumers perspective, global brands are supposed to be available and reachable worldwide and are “*owned by foreign entities*” and this is valid across multiple product categories (Winit et al., 2014, p. 103). A foreign brand is in the mind of consumers at the first sight with the globalness concept associated. The extensive presence of foreign brands in multiple markets (e.g. worldwide) is usually linked with idea that if these brands are disposable in one’s country of origin, they are most probably available also in other countries too (Johansson and Ronkainen, 2005; Halkias et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, as multiple identities are present and can be activated simultaneously likewise knowing that individuals seek to behave in harmony to the relevant identity that is activated depending on the context, it is expected that EU identity to also have an influence in the foreign non-EU products even though to a lower degree.

To this end, the EU and global identity may interplay and bring to light the multiple foreign elements and become salient (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Zhang & Khare, 2009). Subsequently, the EU identity is considered to consist aspects and elements of national and global identity and is therefore suggested to be suitable for domestic and foreign products (Markstrom, 2011; Cinnirella, 1997). The salience of the EU and global identity may increase the preferences for non-EU products. Moreover Askegaard et al., (2005) and Kizgin et al., (2018) findings have shown that it is possible for immigrants to consume both host and home country products.

Thus, it is predicted that:

H3: European identity positively influences purchase intentions for foreign non- EU products.

3.3 Moderating effect of SNI

The concept of consumers' susceptibility to interpersonal influence in behavioral research is often associated with concerns about satisfying and conforming to expectations of others, and with tendencies to imitate others to achieve acceptance and enhance one's self-image (Bearden et al., 1989; Wooten & Reed, 2004).

In a consumption context, Bearden et al., (1989) defines CSII as “ *the need to identify or enhance one's image with significant others through the acquisition and use of products and brands and the willingness to conform to the expectations of others regarding purchase decisions*” (Bearden et al., 1989 p. 474).

The interpersonal influence was categorized from Bearden and Etzel (1982) as normative and informational social influence. The CSII scale is developed from Bearden et al.,(1989) and has twelve items (eight items that comprise normative dimension and four items that comprises informational dimension). So far, the scale has been used to find its influence on consumers' purchase decisions with regard to various product categories. Both dimensions aim to help consumers to find conformity (Khare, 2014). The four items with regard to informational influence were not involved in the questionnaire of this study and only normative influence questions were used.

Normative influence (SNI) explains how individuals accept and behave conform social norms to gain group conformity and acceptance, which helps them to establish group membership. Normative influence comprises both value-expressive influence and utilitarian influence as both make possible for individuals to achieve group acceptance (Bearden and Etzel, 1982; Price et al., 1987; Bearden et al., 1989; Khare, 2014).

Value expressiveness represents the individuals' aspiration to enhance their self-image by linking it with a social reference group (Kelman, 1961). Moreover, it is argued that value expressiveness occurs during the identification process as people adopt attitudes and opinions of other individuals because this behavior is linked with conforming a “*self-defining relationship*” (Bearden, 1989 p. 474). So, the individual adopts a particular influenced behavior from the in-group not because of his own beliefs or by force but because acting so enables him/her to be closer to the individuals that he/she identifies with and ensure that he/she is a part of that group (Khare, 2014).

Individuals will act in a way to conform to the norms of a group in case this behavior gives them advantage and improves their social position (Bearden and Etzel, 1982; Rimal et al., 2005).

As Arkin (1981) claimed, individuals who seek to present a specific desired impression will follow a particular self-presentation approach, due to their belief that they behave according to the society requirements.

On the other hand, “the individual level” or self-identity represents the person itself, and in interpersonal level, individuals differentiate themselves from others. Yet, the self-concept it is conceptualized from the relationships one has with the others whereas the self-identity at a group level represents the collective self and it is derived from the in-group connection and affiliation (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Brewer and Gardner, 1996, p. 84). As Worchel (1998) explains, the individual identity represents the interpersonal actions of someone differentiating themselves from others whereas the social identity is understood as intergroup attitude where the distinctions is made in the sense of “*we*” and “*them*”(Worchel, 1998 cf. Turner, 1981a).

As already mentioned above while arguing about the social identity theory individuals strive to create a self-concept and to categorize themselves in social groups and this affiliation to a particular social group contributes to shape their behavior (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Tajfel & Turner, 2001; Settles, 2004; Reed et al., 2012).

Khare (2004), conducted a research study to examine the effect of CSII and demographics on the ecologically conscious and the environment friendly purchase behavior. The findings claimed, that it was crucial for participants to gain the approval from groups about ecological concerns. Social norms and values were important predictors of green purchase attitudes. Bearden and Etzel (1982), also claimed that even though every consumer is susceptible to interpersonal influence, the extent of consumers susceptibility varies across individuals.

In addition, Hoffmann and Broekhuizen (2009) also applied the CSII scale to examine its relevance in an investment context. The authors used experimental data to indicate the effect of susceptibility to normative and informational influence in investment decisions in a voluntary and involuntary setting. The findings suggest that consumers’ investment choices are affected by the information and opinions of others and CSII strengthens this impact in voluntary setting. The findings have shown, that SNI increases transaction frequency and consumers who were more influenced from SNI tend to trade more.

Literature suggests, that consumers tend to act differently with different individuals depending on the situation. Social surroundings may affect their consumption behavior and their consumption choices (Stayman & Deshpandé, 1989).

Kizgin et al., (2018 p. 8) argues that, in public domain immigrants tend to have different behavior in comparison to the private domain. The social interaction and communication with the dominant group (e.g. natives) that occur in public domain drive immigrant's consumption choices towards product preferences that share culture commonalities with the host society. Arnett (1995), also claimed that socializing effects may lead consumers to behave according to the group expectations.

Relaying on all these observations, one can predict that SNI will moderate the influence of EU identity in product origin preferences in such a way that high levels of susceptibility to normative influence consumers are supposed to behave in such a way that satisfies host country expectations.

In other words, individuals with high SNI can more easily refer to the notion of "us" in this case (Austrian citizens and Europeans) while enhancing their self-image and "*satisfying a self-defining relationship*" (Wooten & Reed, 2004; Bearden 1989, p. 474).

As a result, this in-group favoritism brings them closer to domestic and EU products as preferred origins.

Therefore, it could to be hypothesized that:

H4: SNI positively influences the effect of EU identity on *purchase intentions* for domestic products.

H5: SNI positively influences the effect of EU identity on *purchase intentions* for foreign EU products.

That being said, one can argue that a positive or a negative affiliation towards the foreign non-EU products has no reason to occur. Based on the SNI definition individuals drive their purchase intentions in such way that their purchase choices meet the expectations of others. By doing so, they tend to enhance their self-image (Bearden et al., 1989 p. 474). In this case, there is no reason for non-EU immigrants to choose the foreign non-EU products as this self-presentation would not be in congruence with the host society expectations. Therefore, the moderating effect of SNI will not provide any influence in this relationship and is not seen to be working as a moderator.

3.4 Control variables

The significant importance of observing control variables in a research study refers to the fact that maintaining those variables constant simplifies the recognition of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables.

As Reed (2002) claims, identities that are activated influence consumer responses and can evoke behaviours consistent to that particular identity (Reed, 2002, p. 237).

Moreover, despite differences that exist between individuals it is already confirmed from different researchers that individuals hold multiple identities (Zhang and Khare, 2009; Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2010; Arnett, 2002).

Therefore, as this research explores the influence of European identity on consumers preferences, the ethnic, national, and global identity are being used as control variables. Besides, as multiple identities can be activated at the same time their influence will be tested simultaneously (Reed, 2002).

In addition, product category involvement will also be involved as a control variable which measures the extent to which a respondent is committed to a specific product category. To avoid any possible bias in favour of these products, product category involvement will be added as control variable.

Moreover, additional control variables include some demographic information such as age, education and income. Considering them as possible causes of socialization of non-EU immigrants with the host country may affect immigrant's behaviour and lead to bias because the socializing effects could guide the behaviour in such a way that expectations of a particular group are satisfied (Arnett, 1995).

4. Methodology

This chapter will provide an illustration of the conducted research by describing in detail this empirical investigation. To be more specific, this chapter will present an in-depth description of the data collection, constructs, and measurements used.

The nature of the study required specific information sets, hence that is why primary data collection was deemed necessary and was conducting through an online survey. Initially, the questionnaire was created in English language, however, as the respondents were supposed to come from non-EU member states the questionnaire was translated into Albanian, German, Serbo-Croatian, and Turkish language respectively.

Minor linguistic changes were necessary to entirely transmit the intended meaning of the questions made. Experienced native speakers of each specific language were involved to make sure that the meaning of the question was not confused and ascertained the changes made as best fit.

The questionnaire was designed using former established scales as well as adapted scales according to the purpose of the study.

The study involved four different product categories where respondents were randomly assigned, as the aim was to maintain consistent results across categories and to avoid being bounded with one specific product category.

Specifically, a combination of high and low involvement product categories were used and question regarding product involvement were made. The four product categories are as follows: clothes, camera, hand-cream, and shampoo.

An overview of the structure and questionnaire design will be clearly elaborated in the sequential chapter.

Moreover, a comprehensive overview of the questionnaire structure, variable measures and sample description will be described in the following chapters as well.

4.1 Data collection

There are several data collection methods and as already mentioned above the nature of this study required first-hand source data which was obtained by conducting an online questionnaire. A non-probability snowball sampling method is used and to find the potential respondents the questionnaires were first distributed among friends and relatives and then shared to the social media channels. In this way a broader and representative

sample could be achieved. This type of sampling technique is practical as it could be time and cost effective in comparisons to probability sampling, but it could also lead to sampling bias (Babin and Zikmund, 2015). Online data collection can easily be available and reach a broader scope of respondents and thus save time and further costs. Nevertheless, there is a possibility that the instructions could be misunderstood and non-response errors may occur due to privacy concerns and participation consequences (Topp and Pawloski, 2002; Babin and Zikmund, 2015).

The respondents were coming from non-EU countries (n=216) but they were living in Austria for more than five years. The questionnaire was constructed by using already established scales from different researchers and self-developed scales according to the study needs.

As already mentioned, the questionnaire was first established in English language and then translated corresponding to the language of the target groups (i.e. Albanian, German, Serbo-Croatian, and Turkish).

Additionally, independent translators reviewed the translated questionnaire and translated once again back in the original language. This was done, for the purpose of being more confident that the initial meaning is transmitted and to check the effectiveness of the translation.

A more comprehensive sample description will be provided later in this chapter.

An in-depth description of the questionnaire can be found in the section below and all exact and relevant questions can be found in the Appendix A.

4.2 Questionnaire structure

As mentioned above, to collect the necessary data an online questionnaire was developed consisting of different questions. To avoid bias, the order of items within the questions was randomized. The largest part of the responses was measured with a 7-point Likert scale followed by some open-ended questions and the questions regarding demographic information's.

Participants were first informed about the flow of the questionnaire, assured that the questionnaire is anonymous and all relevant information will be used only for academic purposes.

The first part of the questionnaire explores the respondent's overall attitude and purchase intentions for three product origins, namely, Austrian products, products coming from another EU country, and products coming from outside of the EU.

Then, participants were asked to rank the product origin according to their preference, choosing the most and the least desirable option.

The next section of questions, asked about their personal beliefs with regard to their identity, political orientation, European Union perception and their overall attitude as buyers.

Finally, respondents were asked to indicate some confidential demographic information such as nationality, age, gender, income, level of education, etc.

The following chapter will explain in more details the variables, measures and methods used.

4.3 Variables and measures

Principally, the judgment or the view that an individual has can be perceived as subjective and personal. Therefore, it is often concluded that attitudes imply the following behavior of an individual in different aspect which comes as a result of her/his personal beliefs (Vinson et al., 1977).

Thus, the first questions of this study, measure individuals' attitude towards three product categories in a 7-point Likert scale with a randomized order of the questions.

The following self-developed questions were asked to explore the overall attitude and preference for products of different origins. The term European Union was used on purpose to avoid participants confusion between Europe as a continent and European Union as an entity.

Attitudes scale:

- My overall attitude toward **Austrian** products is:
- My overall attitude toward products coming from a *European Union country (other than Austria)* is:
- My overall attitude toward products coming from **outside of the European Union** is:

Purchase intention scale

The subsequent questions in the questionnaire, adopted from Putrevu and Lord (1994), aimed to explore purchase intentions of respondents. Each block included three ques-

tions, which were categorized by product origin. The blocks were randomized in order to avoid possible bias.

- It is very likely that I would consider buying products coming from (*Austria, outside of the European Union, European Union country (other than Austria)*).
- I would purchase products coming from (*Austria, outside of the European Union, European Union country (other than Austria)*).
- I would recommend products coming from (*Austria, outside of the European Union, European Union country (other than Austria)*).

Following, to estimate the final choice of consumers and effects of their buying behavior a buying situation was simulated where participants were asked to rank the three product origins in such a way that number one reflected the most desirable option and number three the least desirable option. Participants were presented to these product origins: *Austrian products, products coming from outside of the European Union, products coming from European Union country (other than Austria)*. Namely, the question asked for the choice task was the following:

- Imagine that you want to buy the “X product”. You go into the store and see several relevant products on the shelf. Which one would you choose?

Please indicate your choice by ranking products in such a way that:

- 1 reflects the **most desirable option** &
- 3 reflects the **least desirable option**

Identity development scales

The questionnaire continued with personal beliefs sections. The questions there refer to the individual’s self-perception in general. Here, participants were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale their level of identification with four types of identities.

The existing scales developed by Doosje et al., (1998) and Mlicki & Ellemers, (1996) have been used and adopted in accordance to the needs of this study. The scale of Ethnic identity was self-developed and adapted.

Hence, after the questions for the three identities, namely Austrian, Global and European identity, individuals were asked to think about their country of origin and to write that down. Only after that, participants were faced with the 7-point Likert scale Ethnic Identity questions.

All group of questions were randomized, and the position of individual questions remained fixed.

- I see myself as (*part of Austria, a Citizen of the European Union, a global citizen, a part of my ethnic group*)
- I strongly identify with (*Austria, the European Union, the entire world, my ethnic group*)
- I feel strong connection to (*Austria, the European Union, the entire world, my ethnic group*)
- (*Austrian, European Union, Global, my ethnic group*) identity is an important reflection of who I am

Ethnic background question

- Now we want you to think of the country from which you (and your family) originally come from – your country of origin. Please write down this country in the space provided below:

The country of my ethnic background is:

Now, thinking of your country of origin – (your ethnic origin) to what extent would you disagree or agree with the following statements?

European Union perception scale

To investigate how European Union is perceived from immigrants, the respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale the attachment that they think their ethnic origin group has towards European Union (anchored by 1 = Very unfavorably and 7 = Very favorably). The scale was self-developed and easy to understand.

- Regardless of your own personal belief, how do you think that *most **people in your country of origin*** (your ethnic origin) perceived the European Union?

Political orientation scale

Political orientation and the ideology with which individuals may identify themselves could play a massive role in their behavior. Therefore, in this study the scale to measure the political orientation was adapted from Graham et al., (2009) where participants were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale their political views (anchored by 1 = Conservative and 7 = Liberal and 4 was considered as middle point)

- In general, how would you describe your political views?

Purchase behavior section

In this section, participants were asked about their general attitudes as a buyer, which is important and plays a significant role in individuals buying decisions.

Product category involvement scale

This construct is broadly used as construct in consumer behavior research. It mainly deals with identifying the extent a respondent is involved and fascinated for a particular product category. The scale was adapted from Mittal & Lee (1989), where respondents indicated in a 7-point Likert scale their interest for the given product category (Goldsmith et al., 2010). So, to explore the consumer commitment and involvement to a specific product category the following questions were asked:

- To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements?
 - I have a strong interest in X product.
 - X product is very important to me.

Susceptibility to normative influence scale

In behavior research susceptibility to interpersonal influence is considered as the need of some individuals to drive their purchase intentions in such a way that others are satisfied, and their self-image is enhanced (Bearden et al., 1989; Wooten & Reed, 2004). Therefore, this scale was adopted from Bearden et al., (1989) and has twelve items (eight items that comprise normative dimension and four items that comprise informational dimension). The eight items from normative dimensions (SNI) were used and participants were asked to indicate their preferences on a 7-point Likert scale (ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree):

- When buying products, I generally purchase brands that I think other people in Austria approve of.
- If other people in Austria can see me using a product, I tend to purchase the brand they would expect me to buy.
- I achieve a sense of belonging to Austria by purchasing the same products and brands that other people in Austria purchase.
- I try to identify with other people in Austria by purchasing the same brands they purchase.

- If I want to be like someone from Austria, I often try to buy the same brands that they buy.
- I like to know what brands and products make a good impression on other people in Austria.
- I rarely purchase the latest fashion style until I am sure my friends from Austria approve of them.
- It is important that others in Austria like the products and brands I buy (Bearden et al., 1989).

Political attitude

The same style of question was asked about politics before was asked again in the questionnaire by measuring the individual's political attitudes on a 7-point Likert scale (anchored by 1 Right Wing = and 7 = Left Wing). The scale was self-developed and straightforward.

- Finally, how would you describe your general to political orientation?
I see myself as more ...

Finally, respondents were asked to specify some basic demographic information's. The first questions started by asking them to indicate their gender, followed by nationality where they had to option to indicate if they hold an Austrian passport or other.

Moreover, participants were asked of the years of living in Austria and how often did they visit their country of origin in the last two years.

The last questions were about, employment status, income, highest education achieved and, finally, their age.

5. Analysis and results

This chapter will summarize a conclusion of the data analysis process and will give an in-depth overview by interpreting all of the data that have been analyzed.

The first section will start with explaining some main statistical assumptions, followed by more precisely interpretation of the results with regard European identity influence on attitudes, purchase intentions and all other related subjects.

Data analysis section will summarize and report the findings and will provide general explanation of what has been concluded and which hypothesis were supported.

5.1 Sample description

In total, 371 respondents participated in the online survey, however the final data sheet contained 216 valid respondents and those have been used for the final analysis. There were 41 cases which have been excluded while they indicated that their ethnic origin is from one of the European Union countries (i.e. Austria, German, Hungary, Spain, Croatia) and 22 other cases who didn't indicate their ethnic origin. Furthermore, 30 individuals claimed that they have been living in Austria for less than five years and 31 individuals didn't indicate neither their length of stay nor didn't answer the question if they have been born here. Among these, there were cases which have been excluded because they didn't indicate their length of stay but claimed that they are born here however their ethnic origin was missing. These individuals were excluded since my study aimed to capture the ones who have been living for more than five years in Austria or are born in Austria but with non-EU ethnic origin. The other left cases were excluded due to false or incomplete responses and missing data in the main variables (13 respondents) and outliers (18 respondents).

Finally, the overall final sample comprised 57.9% female participants and 42.1 % male participants. Among these, 33.3 % fall into the category between 18-25 years old , 47.2% were between 26-35 years old , 14.8% were between 36-45 years old and finally 4.6 % were between 46-55 years old. In terms of nationality (passport), 38% of the respondents did hold an Austrian passport and 48% had a passport coming from another European Union country or from a non-EU country. Finally, 13.4 % didn't indicate what kind of passport they hold.

However, only 18.5 % of the respondents were born in Austria and represented the second generations of immigrants whereas 81.5% of them have been living in Austria for more than 5 years. Given the fact that respondents were supposed to come from Non-EU countries, the question about their ethnic origin revealed that the majority of respondents were coming from Balkan countries. Kosovo counting 37% of the respondents, Bosnia and Herzegovina counting for 25% of the respondents, Turkey with 13.4% of the respondents, Albania with 6.9%, Serbia 6.5%, North Macedonia with 2.8% each and finally 6.5% were declared to come from other countries like Russia, Ukraine, India, Syria, Egypt, Georgia, etc.

Moreover, more than half of respondents were highly educated where 33.8% of them were having a bachelor's degree and 22.2% were holding a master's degree. The rest were not similarly distributed within categories as 24.5% of them finished high school, 10.2% were holding vocational school certificate, 5.1% had other specific education level and 3.7% did only the elementary school.

When it comes to the economic integration of non-EU immigrants into the Austrian labor market the majority, or more specifically 48.6% of the respondents indicated that they work full-time followed with 34.3% working part-time. The results indicate that only 8.8% of respondents were unemployed whereas 7.9% in vocational training whereas only 0.5% were retired. When it comes to earnings, 21.8% fall into the category between 601-1000 Euro net/month, 14.4% earn 1501-2000 Euro, 19% earn 2001-2500 Euro net/month, 13.4% earn less than 600 Euro net/month 9.7% earn more than 2500 Euro net/month.

Considering first results, there is a need to address some issues caused by product category involvement. Analysis of variance is used to compare means of this construct and while looking at multiple comparison table results provided important insights with regard to differences on product category involvement between different product categories. One-way-Anova, presented significant differences between product categories and Post Hoc multiple comparison table showed that clothes in compare to camera are significantly different ($p = .019$; $M(I-J) = -.7955$). Individuals were highly involved in cloths and less involved in cameras. However, there were no statistically significant differences between hand cream and camera ($p = .390$). The other comparison revealed that there is also a statistically significant difference between camera and shampoo ($p = .003$; $M(I-J) = -1.0392$ as well as shampoo and hand cream ($p = .033$; $M(I-J) = -.7342$). The results revealed that respondents were much more involved in shampoo than

in hand creams and in cameras. Taken together these results, important insights are provided that indicate the two product categories in which respondents were to a greater extent involved and those are clothes and shampoo. Given the sufficient consideration in differences with regard to product category involvement, it has been found appealing to present these results, even though product category involvement is included as a control variable in the model.

The following table will represent the social demographic information in detail.

Socio-demographic variables	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	91	42.1%
Female	125	57.9%
Nationality (Passport-s)		
Austrian	82	38 %
Other	105	48.6%
Missing	29	13.4 %
Ethnic Origin		
Albania	15	6.9 %
Bosnia and Herzegovina	54	25 %
Kosovo	80	37.6 %
North Macedonia	6	2.8 %
Serbia	14	6.5 %
Turkey	29	13.4 %
Other Non-Balkanas	14	6.5 %
Age		
18-25	72	33.3 %
26-35	102	47.2 %
36-45	32	14.8 %
46-55	10	4.6 %

Education		
Master's degree	48	22.2%
Bachelor's degree	73	33.8 %
Vocational School Certificate	22	10.2 %
High school certificate	53	24.5 %
Elementary school	8	3.7 %
Other, please specify	11	5.1 %
Political orientation		
Conservative	26	12%
Neutral	37	17.1%
Liberal	153	70.8%
Immigrant generations		
First generation	176	81.5%
Second generation	40	18.5%

Table 1: Socio-demographics (n=216)

5.2 Measures of validity and reliability

As there are cases where we aim to do a substantive interpretation of the data and we expect that we have to deal with variables that are supposed to measure the same thing it is highly suggested to use the Exploratory Factor Analysis.

The first assumption in factor analysis is the sample adequacy. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) criterion, which can take values from 0 to 1 is used to verify the sampling adequacy of the items measured. All items should fall into the accepted values $> .05$, which is referred, as “acceptable” and appropriate for factor analysis (Field, 2013).

In correlation terms, the fact that we say, that the items of one dimension will be possibly more closely related compare to the other items, means that correlation between the items measuring from one dimension will be stronger compare to the items of the other dimension. Therefore, we use the Bartlett's Test of sphericity to compare whether the correlation matrix is similar to the identity matrix (Field, 2013).

In this study, the KMO Criterion result to verify the sampling adequacy where are all items were bigger then accepted values $> .05$. The Bartlett's Test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .001$) in all cases and the determinant of the R matrix = .097 >

.00001, therefore the assumption of multicollinearity is met and is no problem for this data set.

Moreover, each factor that is developed has an Eigen value that indicates how much of the common variance in the overall dataset is explained. Factors that have the Eigen value of 1 are those that are good enough to explain the overall variability (Field, 2013). To check for the reliability of each construct, the Cronbach's alpha test was used. Field (2013) indicates that constructs can take values between 0 and 1 and the one with values over 0.7 are considered to be reliable. The percentage of the variance explained of the created constructs can be founded in the Table 1.

Moreover, the Pearson's correlation coefficient indicated that all the items have high positive correlations, with none above .9 to arise any problems with the singularity in the data. All the key assumptions were met, and I proceed with the development of the composite measures shown in the table below.

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach's α	Variance Explained	KMO
PI_Foreign	3	0.811	72.65 %	0.692
PI_Domestic	3	0.878	80.65 %	0.732
PI_EU	3	0.868	79.22 %	0.731
PC_Involvement	2	0.862	87.90%	0.500
ID_A	4	0.888	75.15 %	0.814
ID_EU	4	0.912	79.57 %	0.806
ID_G	4	0.898	76.79 %	0.774
ID_ETH	4	0.934	83.51 %	0.839
C_Consumption	4	0.869	71.97 %	0.802
SNI	8	0.905	62.36 %	0.896

Table 2: Reliability and validity of construct

5.3 Relationship between identities

To measure the strength of the association between the European, domestic, global, and ethnic identity of non-EU immigrants, Pearson's correlation was used. The results indicate that there exists a significant strong relationship between European identity and national (Austrian) identity ($\text{sig.} = .000 < .05$; $r = .478$). This supports the findings from various authors who researched the EU identification among non-EU immigrants (Teney et al., 2016; Erisen, 2016; Di Mauro and Fiket, 2014; Van Oudenhoven et al., 2006; Cinnirella and Hamilton, 2007).

Moreover, European identity seems to have a significant relationship with ethnic identity even though, the strength of this relationship is weaker compared to national identity ($\text{sig.} = .012 < .05$; $r = .152$). Thus, the findings support the findings from Teney et al., (2016) which also found positive relationship between EU identity and country of origin identity. The literature review section also suggested that individuals who strongly identify with their national identity tend to identify with Europe as well. In the same vein Sinnott & Niedermayer (1995, p. 203-204) claim, "*national pride tends to foster the development of European identity*". The results also support the findings from Waechter (2014) who claimed that "*European identity is compatible with both national and ethnic identities*". On the other hand, European identity is also significantly positively correlated with global identity ($\text{sig.} = .008 < .05$; $r = .163$), even though this correlation is not very strong. This view is supported by Duchesne & Frognier (1995), as they claim that European identity builds on the basis of national identities and is positioned somewhere between a "*more specific national and a more abstract global identity*" likewise shares common features with global identity (Beck, 2004; Jamieson, 2002). The results of this study assert the same view. On the other hand, national identity was not significantly related neither with global identity ($n. \text{sig} = .151 > .05$ $r = .070$) nor with ethnic identity ($n. \text{sig} = .333 > .05$ $r = .030$). The results also indicated that global identity was not significantly correlated with national identity ($n. \text{sig} = .151 > .05$ $r = .070$) and ethnic identity ($n. \text{sig} = .170 > .05$ $r = -.065$). Finally, one may argue that, European identity is positively correlated with all above-mentioned identities which was found also in Micevski et al., (2019) and Cinnirella & Hamilton, (2007) study, whereas there is no significant relationship between global, ethnic, and national identity with each other.

Surprisingly, as Teney et al.(2016, p. 2191) while arguing about the sociology of immigration theory claimed that there exist no conflict between host-country identity and ethnic origin identity of non-EU immigrants. Researchers also argued that global and ethnic identity could be seen as distinct constructs, however Reed et al., (2012) as well as Arnett (2002), argue that it is possible to possess global and local identity simultaneously.

Surprisingly, descriptive statistic indicated that respondents showed a higher level of global identity (M= 5.20) followed by European identity (M= 4.97). Moreover, the results revealed that respondents have also high levels of ethnic identity (M= 4.93) which is weaker in compare to their global and European identity. The Austrian identity showed the lowest level (M= 4.56). However, all identities are significantly higher than their grand mean (point 4). This might be due to the fact that, non-EU immigrants may perceive the EU and global identity as more multicultural in comparison to the national identity. Actually, these results support the claims from Arnett (2002), who said, that one could feel connected to their own nation likewise with superior entity such as the European Union or even with the whole mankind as defined by the global identity. The findings from Teney et al., (2016, p. 2183) also suggested that, “*Non-EU immigrants tend to identify as European – even if to a lesser extent than EU immigrants* “. He also found that, immigrant who identified with their country of origin were more likely to be identified as Europeans. Moreover, his findings also showed that non-EU immigrants identified themselves with the host country as well.

Other authors also found that non-EU immigrants identify themselves with the EU identity as well as with the host country identity (Teney et al., 2016; Van Oudenhoven et al., 2006; Cinnirella and Hamilton, 2007; Erisen, 2017).

Cinnirella and Hamilton (2007), also found a positive correlation between national, ethnic, and European identity among South Asian respondents.

Nonetheless, the result from this thesis also indicates that non-EU immigrants feel European, however, a comparison with EU-immigrants could not be provided due to limited scope of this study. Hence, thinking about the acculturation process, which is defined by Faber et al., (1987, p. 123) as “*the adoption of the dominant culture's beliefs, attitudes, values, and behaviour*” seems that non-EU immigrants are very well integrated. This due to the fact that, in the acculturation profile integration indicates a high ethnic origin identity and a high residence culture identity.

Therefore, findings from Phinney et.al (2001, p. 505; Berry & Sam, 1997) are supported ,who claim that, “*most immigrants prefer integration, retaining their culture of origin while adapting to the new culture*”.The results are presented also in the figure 3.

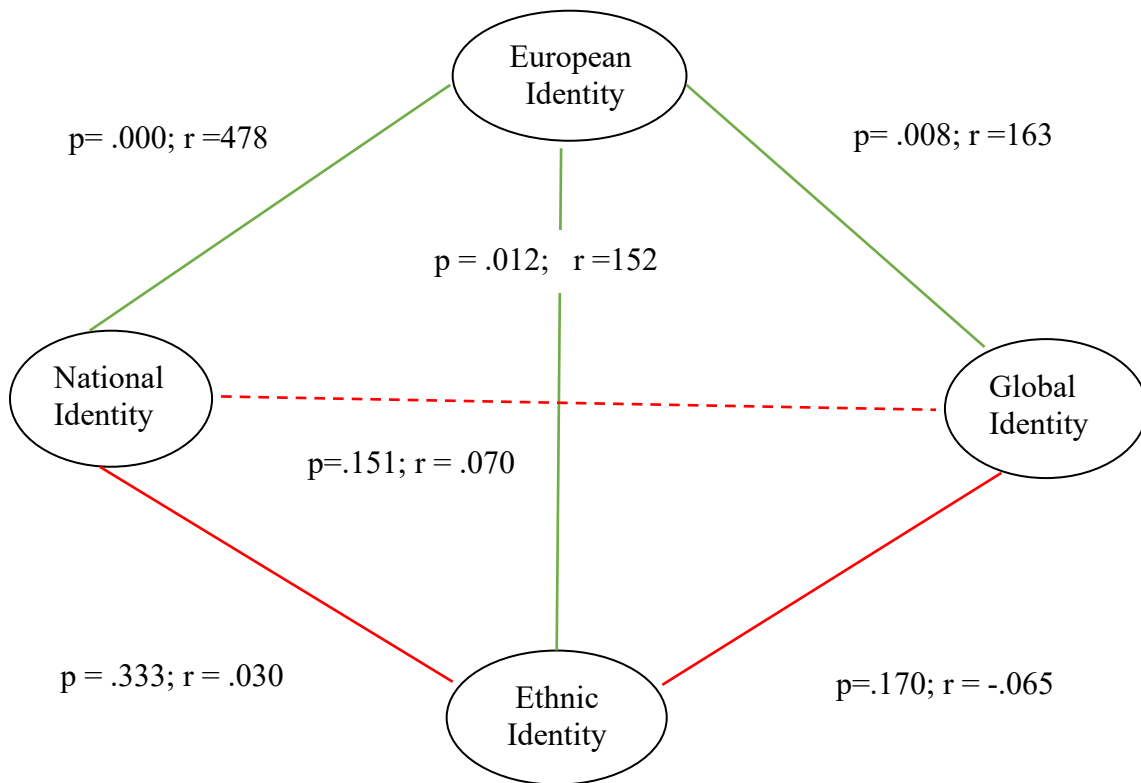


Figure 3: Pearson's correlation coefficients

5.4 European identity and purchase intentions

Stepwise method of the multiple linear regression analysis has been used to test the hypothesis with regard to the European identity and purchase intentions toward different product categories.

Inspecting multicollinearity and autocorrelation issues we could argue that assumptions to conduct the regression analysis were met (all values < 0.7 , Variance Inflation Factor < 5 , Tolerances $> .20$; Durbin Watson Test ≈ 2 and Homoscedasticity)(Field2013).

The results obtained from Homoscedasticity raise a bit reasons for concerns as the scatterplot data points were not evenly dispersed throughout the plot in all cases. Still, Homoscedasticity seemed to be “workable” as the residuals did not represent heteroscedasticity to violate completely the assumption, but the data points were neither randomly scattered around zero throughout the plot (see Appendix B).

5.4.1 European identity and domestic products

To identify the best set of predictors and to examine the significance of each variable in the model while investigating the purchase intention toward domestic products stepwise regression method has been used. Stepwise method consists of series of steps and adds the variables which are the most useful to include in the model while automatically excludes variables which are not significantly contributing or removes the variable that least satisfies the criterion. Following this, the variables that will retained in the model are the one whose β -coefficient have the highest absolute t -value (Field, 2013; Agresti & Franklin, 2013).

Following, the purchase intentions toward domestic products has been investigated and has been set as a dependent variable. In the first block, the control variables (ethnic identity, national identity, global identity, age, education, income, and involvement) were added. To find the unique effect of EU identity towards purchase intentions domestic, the EU identity variable has been added in the model at the end of the block. Stepwise regression method created two models. In general, the first model was statistically significant ($\text{sig.} = .000 < .05$) and 15% of the variability was predicted by the model ($R^2 = .152$). Austrian identity was the strongest predictor of purchase intention towards domestic products (standardized $\beta = .390$, sig. one-tailed $p = .029$) which is also expected according to the literature.

The results indicated that EU identity also influences the results and is a statistically significant predictor of purchase intentions for domestic products (standardized $\beta = .160$, sig. one-tailed $= .034 < .05$). Meaning for every 1 unit increase in EU identity we get a $b = .160$ increase in purchase intentions domestic. Product category involvement (standardized $\beta = .390$, sig. one-tailed $p = .029$) and ethnic identity (standardized $\beta = .119$, sig. one-tailed $= .017 < .05$) were also predictors of purchase intentions domestic. The statistically significant results have shown an overall improvement in prediction of 5% ($\text{sig.} = .001 < .05$, $R^2 = .200$) coming from the second model.

In the second model, Austrian identity (standardized $\beta = .361$, sig. one-tailed $p = .000$) together with product category involvement (standardized $\beta = .221$, sig. one-tailed $p = .001$) were the strongest predictor of purchase intentions domestic.

The results indicate that EU identity is a statistically significant predictor of purchase intentions domestic also in the second model (standardized $\beta = .129$, sig. one-tailed $= .013 < .05$). Taken together the result of this regression analysis, the H_1 hypothesis is

supported and shows that EU identity is a positive predictor of purchase intentions for domestic products. The table below illustrates the summarized results of this analysis.

	R Square	Sig. F Change	Stand. B	p-value
Model 1	.152	.00		
Austrian ID			.390	p= .000
Excluded significant variables				
Product category			.221	p= .000
involvement			.160	p= .013
European ID			.133	p= .017
Ethnic ID				
Non- significant				
Age			.092	p= .074
Income (net. €/Month)			.032	p= .307
			-.015	p= .408
Educational level			.042	p= .255
Global identity				
Model 2	.200	.000		
Austrian ID			.361	p= .000
Product category			.221	p= .000
involvement				
Excluded significant variables				
European ID			.129	p= .034
Ethnic ID			.119	p= .027
Non- significant				
Age			.072	p= .123
Income net.€/Month			.036	p= .282
Educational level			.005	p= .465
Global identity			.012	p= .424

Table 3: Purchase intentions towards domestic products

5.4.2 European identity and foreign EU products

Subsequently, using the same regression design procedure as in the previous analysis, the purchase intentions of product coming from another European Union country was investigated.

Overall, the result from the first model are statistically significant ($\text{sig.} = .000 < .05$). The variance explained is rather low and only 4% of the variability was predicted by the first model ($R^2 = .040$). Product category involvement was the strongest predictor of purchase intentions towards foreign EU products (standardized $\beta = .200$, $\text{sig. one-tailed} = .000 < .05$). Hence, an overall small improvement in prediction is presented in the second model where European identity yield significant results (standardized $\beta = .152$, $\text{sig. one-tailed} = .001 < .05$). The results show an overall improvement in prediction of 2% ($R^2 = .062$) by adding EU identity in the model. For every 1 unit increase in EU identity we get a $b = .152$ increase in purchase intentions foreign EU.

Therefore, H_2 hypothesis has been supported and EU identity is a positive predictor of purchase intentions for foreign EU products. Finally, the result point out that 6.2 % of the purchase intentions towards foreign EU products could be explained by European identity together with product category involvement and are considered as best predictors. The following table provides an overview of the results obtained from this regression analysis.

	R Square	Sig. F Change	Stand. B	p-value
Model 1	.040	.000		
Product involvement			.200	p= .000
Excluded significant variables				
European identity			.152	p= .013
Non- significant				
Age			-.009	p= .450
Income net.€/Month			.005	p= .474
Educational level			-.094	p= .083
Austrian identity			.052	p= .222
Global identity			-.007	p= .456
Ethnic identity			.152	p= .125

Model 2	.062	.000	
Product category involvement		.173	p= .006
European ID		.152	p= .013
Non- significant variables			
Age		-.022	p= .374
Income (net. € /Month)		-.012	p= .430
Educational level		-.088	p= .096
Austrian identity		-.023	p= .381
Global identity		-.029	p= .349
Ethnic ID		.057	p= .200

Table 4: Purchase intentions towards other EU products

5.4.3 European identity and foreign non-EU products

The final regression analysis using again the same design investigated the purchase intention for foreign non-EU products.

The results show that global identity is the only significant predictor for purchase intention towards foreign non-EU products (standardized $\beta = .176$, sig. one-tailed = $.000 < .05$). The overall model explained 3.1% of the variance ($R^2 = .031$).

Unfortunately, the inclusion of European identity as a possible predictor did not yield to significant results thus, hypothesis H₃ has not been supported. This, even though the previous results indicated a positive correlation between European and global identity. However, previous studies have also supported the role that global identity plays with regard to global products and it was expected that global identity will be a positive predictor of purchase intentions global (Zhang & Khare, 2009; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015).

The table below provides an overall overview of the model.

	R Square	Sig. F Change	Stand. B	p-value
Model 1	.031	.005		
Global identity			.176	p= .005
Non- significant variables				
Age			-.057	.202
Income (net. €/Month)			-.078	.125
Educational level			.034	.309
Product category			.074	.139
involvement			.050	.230
Austrian identity			.082	.113
Ethnic identity			-.200	.491
European identity				

Table 5: Purchase intentions towards foreign non-EU products

5.5 European identity and the moderation effect of SNI

To test the hypothesis and to find whether SNI moderates the relationship between EU identity on purchase intention towards domestic and foreign EU products, moderation analysis via PROCESS model 1 is executed (Hayes, 2017). In particular, the interaction effect between the EU identity and SNI is investigated and whether or not such an effect is significant in predicting the purchase intentions domestic and foreign EU. The results are presented in the chapters below.

5.5.1 SNI and domestic products

The EU's identity effect on purchase intention domestic is predicted to be moderated by SNI. The results demonstrate an overall significant model ($F(10,194)= 6,47, p=.000$, $R^2 = .24$) and 24% of the variance is explained due to the predictors and their interaction. The moderating effect of SNI on the relationship between the EU identity and purchase

intention for domestic products was not significant. Therefore, it should be pointed out that the H₄ hypothesis is not supported.

The overall results are presented in the table below.

DV: PI Domestic					
Model	F(10,194)=647		p.000	R ² = .24	
<u>Bootstrapping</u>					
<u>BC=90% CI</u>					
	se	t	p	Lower	Upper
Constant	.6984	3.4892	.0006	1.2826	3.5910
ID_EU	.0682	1.4144	.1589	-.0163	.2093
SNI	.0791	-21701	.0073	-.3453	-.0837
Int_1	.0428	.4751	.6352	-.0504	.0911
ID_ETH	.0558	1.3922	.1655	-.0145	.1699
ID_A	.0679	4.6573	.0000	.2042	.4286
ID_G	.0645	-.3227	.7473	-.1274	.0858
PC_INVOL	.0559	2.9879	.0032	.0746	.2592
Education	.0695	.3586	.7203	-.0899	.1397
Income	.0670	.5776	.5642	-.0720	.1495
Age	.1279	.4795	.6321	-.1500	.2726

Table 6: Moderation effect of SNI on domestic products.

5.5.2 SNI and foreign EU-products

In the case of products coming from another EU country similar pattern emerged. The results demonstrate an overall significant model ($F(10,194)= 1,99$, $p=.03$, $R^2 = .093$) and around 10 % of the variance is explained due to the predictors and their interaction. The moderating effect of SNI on the relationship between the EU identity and purchase intention for domestic products was not significant. Therefore, it should be pointed out that the H₅ hypothesis is also not supported.

The following table provides an overview of the summary statistics from the results obtained.

DV: PI Foreign EU					
Model	F(10,194)= 1.99		p= .018	R ² = .093	
Bootstrapping					
BC=90% CI					
	se	t	P	Lower	Upper
Constant	.7627	6.2578	.0000	3.5121	6.0331
ID_EU	.0745	1.8931	.0598	.0179	.2643
SNI	.8645	-2193	.0295	-.3324	-.0467
Int_1	.0468	-.0364	.9710	-.0790	.0756
ID_ETH	.0609	.7918	.4294	-.0524	.1489
ID_A	.0742	-2521	.8012	-.1413	.1039
ID_G	.0704	-.5938	.5534	-.1582	.0746
PC_INVOL	.0610	2.5448	.0117	.0544	.2561
Education	.0758	-.10779	.2824	-.2071	.0436
Income	.0732	.2661	.7905	-.1015	.1404
Age	.1396	-.6895	.4913	-.3270	.1345

Table 7: Moderation effect of SNI on foreign EU products

5.6 Additional findings

Since this study involved, a specific group of respondents like non- EU immigrants, it was considered appropriate to run some additional test and explore what else has an influence on the development of European identity.

Even though no initial hypotheses were developed, and no prior predictions have been made, exploring for the differences between means of the groups yield to interesting result.

In the three next chapters, some results will be presented as the data were further explored to simply find the main effect in the means of the different treatment groups by using the One-Way-ANOVA and Post hoc tests.

It is already known that, One-Way-ANOVA explores if the groups differ significantly and the Post hoc test which consist pairwise comparisons indicates which specific

groups differ and is “*designed to compare all different combinations of the treatment groups*” (Field, 2013, p. 372).

Hence, the results of these tests are presented and further explained in the upcoming chapters.

5.6.1 Political orientation and EU identity

Individuals political beliefs may be based and shaped on the interest of the social groups and may involve some aspects of the individual's identities. Conservatism is usually associated with a conventional form of behavior, by encompassing a more traditional view. Conservatives are considered the individuals who tend to be lower in openness, have a tendency to be traditional and resist changes (Everett, 2013; Thorisdottir et al., 2007; Jost, 2006). One can argue, that these tendencies would make conservatives more ethnocentric which in turn will shape their behavior in favor of the domestic products. Moreover, the level of conservatism is possible to reduce the level to which individuals identify themselves with EU identity and thus reduce the overall effect of European identity on purchase intentions for foreign EU and non-EU products.

On the other hand, liberals are considered to be more open to experience and more willing to seek and accept changes (Everett, 2013; Thorisdottir et al., 2007; Jost, 2006).

Once can argue, that individuals who consider themselves as liberals would support the EU identity and the level of liberalism would strength the effects of EU identity and product preferences of all origins.

To measure the non-EU immigrants' political views, respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale their political orientation (anchored by 1 = Conservative and 7 = Liberal). However, to see the main effect of political orientation on the development of the EU identity within different groups, three groups were created. The groups were split in such a way that the first group respondents are the one who fall into the scale category from 1-3 and have been considered as conservatives (26 respondents or 12%). The group two involved all respondents who fall in the scale category 4 and are considered as neutral (37 respondents or 17.1%). Finally, the third group is created with respondents who fall in the scale category from 5-7 and have been considered as liberals (153 respondents or 70.8%). The results indicated that there is a significant difference across groups ($F(2, 213)=7.952$, $p=.000$).

The results of post hoc pairwise comparison show that conservatives are significantly lower in EU identification in compare to the individuals who are neutral ($p=.020$; $M(I-J)$

= -.9810) or liberal ($p=.000$; $M(I-J) = -1.3644$). However, there were no statistically significant differences in the development of the EU identity for individuals who don't consider themselves neither as conservatives nor as liberals in compare to liberals ($p=.201$). Apparently, individuals who are neutral and those who are liberal tend to equally identify with European Union. The mean of European identity of conservatives is ($M= 3.837$), for neutrals ($M= 4.818$) and finally liberals seem to have the highest one ($M= 5.201$).

Hence, although the results show that political orientation makes sense across groups when it comes to the extent on how much they identify with EU, these results should be considered with caution because of the uneven sample size, as I failed to capture enough conservatives. However, it is worth to mention that Pearson's correlation results indicated that there exists a positive significant relationship between European identity and political orientation ($\text{sig.} = .000 < .05$; $r = .275$).

5.6.2 Nationality (Passport) and EU identity

Investigating further the development of EU identity of non-Eu immigrants the question where respondents indicated if they hold an Austrian passport or not was used. Among 216 respondents, 82 individuals (38%) had an Austrian passport and 105 individuals (48.6%) had another passport. Moreover, 29 respondents (13.4%) didn't answer this question and they were therefore not involved in this analysis.

The purpose of the concept citizenship is to define individuals who are members and belong to a mutual society and those who are not (Barbalet, 1988, p. 1; Barbalet, 1993). Besides its legal status, citizenship represents also an identity (Lehning, 2001; Barbalet, 1993). Individuals from various nations who are passport holders from one of the EU members states share the same legal rights, a mutual identity, which in turn creates a connection among the EU and its citizens (Fehrenkamp, 2013; Lehning, 2001; Barbalet, 1993).

Teney et al., (2016, p. 2197), while investigating the endorsement of EU identity among EU and Non-EU citizens claimed that EU affiliation and feeling of belongingness is tightly related to the EU citizenship.

The legal notion of the EU citizenship indicates that "*any person who holds the nationality of an EU country is automatically also an EU citizen*" (Fehrenkamp, 2013, p. 7).

Holding the citizenship from one of the EU member states gives additional rights to the individuals such as the right to move and work freely in other EU countries, the right to participate in host country and EU parliament elections etc. (Fehrenkamp, 2013, p. 7). Thus, it could be expected that the level of EU identification will vary among individuals who hold a passport from one of the EU members states to those who don't. Therefore, with the same statistical tests as above, possible significant differences between means of groups were explored.

Results revealed that there is an overall statistically significant difference between individuals who hold an Austrian passport and those who don't ($F(1,185) = 6.219, p = .014$). The pairwise comparison table discovered that individuals who hold an Austrian passport have significantly higher European identity in compare to those who don't ($p = .014, M(I-J) = -.613$). The mean of EU identity of individuals who have a passport is quite higher ($M = 5.125$) in comparison to the one who don't hold a passport ($M = 4.512$). However, both groups indicated high levels of European identification.

5.6.3 Second generation of non-EU immigrants and EU identity

Applying the same tests as in the last two chapters, differences on the development of EU identity between second generation of non-EU immigrants and the ones who have been living in Austria for more than 5 years have been investigated. There were 40 participants or 18% of the total respondents who were born in Austria and represented the second generation of immigrants. On the other hand, there were 176 or 81% of the respondents who have been living in Austria for more than 5 years and represented the first generation of immigrants. The scope to which first and second-generation immigrants may differently identify themselves with EU identity depends from various factors such as social interactions, school, language skills etc. A study in Germany revealed that second-generation of immigrants with Turkish ethnic background live completely detached from the major group of the society represented by the German nationals. It has been said that, the first-generation of immigrants were unwilling to support their children with school tasks as they lacked in language skills of the host country society. Therefore, a lack of socialization and integration in the host country with regard to the second generation of immigrants was observed (Thomson and Crul, 2007).

Other studies argue that, due to stereotyping attitudes which are usually linked with their parents' second-generation immigrants often faces discrimination from the host society (Erisen, 2017). Finding themselves between two different cultures (e.g. home

culture and host country culture) the second-generation of immigrants tend to create a kind of identity which consists features of national (i.e. Austrian identity) and ethnic identity (Phineey et al., 2001). Social identity theory argues that larger united entities (e.g. Europe) are more likely to be linked with future generations as to the forgoing generations. Thus, the development of self-identity among new generations is consequently linked with positive attitudes towards Europe (Cinnirella and Hamilton, 2007). Moreover, D'Rozariom and Choudhury (2000) claimed that, first generation immigrants face difficulties adapting host country culture. For some it might be impossible, demanding, and challenging to fit in the changes of this cultural clash.

Furthermore, Teney et al., (2016), argues that EU citizenship is saliently endorsing the EU identity among immigrants and it is quite likely that second generation immigrants do hold a European passport as they are born in Europe .Therefore, it could be expected that, second generation immigrants go through a different process of acculturation in comparison to first generation immigrants and their EU identification could be different in comparison to their family.

The results imply that there exists a statistically significant difference between first and second generation of non-EU immigrants with regard to EU identity development ($F(1,214)= 5.666, p= .018$). Therefore, these results support the claims that first and second generation of immigrants differ in the extent to which they identify themselves with the EU (Erisen, 2017; Phineey et al., 2001; Thomson and Crul, 2007).

The pairwise comparison table revealed that the first generation of immigrants have significantly lacked on the EU identity development in comparison to those who are born in Austria ($p= .018$; $M(I-J) = -.695$). The mean of EU identity of those who are not born in Austria is relatively smaller ($M= 4,842$) in comparison to those who are born in Austria ($M= 5.538$).

5.7 Summary of findings

Hypothesis	Results
<i>H₁: European identity positively influences purchase intentions for domestic products.</i>	Sig.($\beta = .129$; $p = .034$)
<i>H₂: European identity positively influences purchase intentions for foreign EU products.</i>	Sig.($\beta = .152$; $p = .001$)
<i>H₃: European identity positively influences purchase intentions for foreign non-EU products.</i>	n.s
<i>H₄: SNI positively influences the effect of EU identity on purchase intentions for domestic products.</i>	n.s
<i>H₅: SNI positively influences the effect of EU identity on purchase intentions for foreign EU products.</i>	n.s

Table 8: Summary of finding

6. Discussion and conclusion

In this investigation, the main goal was to determine the effect of European identity on product preferences and purchase intentions of non-EU immigrants. Hence, the aim of this thesis was to explore and recognize the role of European identity with regard to the consumers' product preferences and add its significance in the location-based identities as a potential influencer of attitudes and behaviors of immigrants.

Overall, the findings highlight the potential usefulness of European identity in the migration context and offer additional avenues to the researchers absorbed in EU identity. A precious insight is that European identity is positively correlated with ethnic, national, and global identity. This was also found in the study of Micevski et al., (2019) and Cinnirella & Hamilton (2007). Moreover Teney et al., (2016) and Erisen (2017), also found a positive relationship between European, host country and country of the origin identity among non-EU immigrants, therefore, these findings are also supported.

However, there was no significant relationship of the national (Austrian) identity, ethnic identity, and global identity with each other. These findings contradict the immigration sociology theory which argues that there exists no conflicts between host country identity and ethnic origin identity of non-EU immigrants (Teney et al., 2016). An explanation for the unrelated relationships of ethnic, global, and national (Austrian) identity with each other could be that for immigrants these three identities are culturally different.

In terms of identity strength, the results show that non-EU immigrants hold a very strong global and European identity, followed by a strong ethnic and Austrian identity. As mentioned in literature review, previous studies have already demonstrated that it is indeed possible for individuals to hold multiple identities (e.g. Settles, 2004) and the findings from this research study are able to support this point of view.

The findings from Van Oudenhoven et al., (2006) have also shown that Turkish immigrants identified themselves both with EU and host country society even though the EU identity was stronger. Erisen (2017), also found that non-EU immigrants hold a strong EU identity. This could be due to the civic nature of EU identity discussed in the research objectives section and the fact that EU identity is perceived as distinct and not particularly related to a specific nation in comparison to other identities (e.g. ethnic, national) (Agirdag et al., 2016, ; Diamantopolus, 2017; Erisen, 2017; Kennedy, 2013).

Besides, additional findings bring to light the fact that second generation of non-EU immigrants together with those who hold an Austrian passport have a higher level of European identity in comparison to the first generation of non-EU immigrants not holding an Austrian passport.

The literature also suggested that citizenship is a salient element which endorses European identification and a shared feeling of belonging to the community among immigrants (Teney et al., 2016, p. 2182-2184). Anyone who holds a passport from one of the EU state members is automatically considered as EU citizen and this is thought to create a link between EU and its population (Fehrenkamp, 2013; Lehning, 2001; Barbalet, 1993). Moreover, for the first-generation immigrant's the integration to the host society seems to be dependent from factors such as language skills, social interaction etc.

In contrast, second generation immigrants have the advantage of holding a passport and possess proficient language skills already from birth and school. Hence, sometimes they are also discriminated from the host society (Eriksen, 2017; Thomson and Crul, 2007). That being said, one can argue that holding a passport from one of the EU member states countries can be a signal of the extent to which individuals identify themselves with the EU.

Thus, this study has shed a contemporary light on the contentious issue of the development of European identity among non-EU immigrants, who represent a considerable amount of the European population. Moreover, these results represent a major breakthrough through the process of EU integration and sustainability likewise a sense of belonging among non-EU immigrants to the host-country and the EU in general, who indeed do not always share social, political, and economic agreements of European Union.

Another initial objective of this study as mentioned above was to identify the significant role of the European identity on consumers purchase behavior regarding products with different origins. The present results are significant and confirm that EU identity positively influence non-EU immigrants purchase behavior toward domestic and other foreign EU products. However, non-significant effect has been observed in the case of global products and this contradicts (Micevski et al., 2018) study. Possibly, for non-EU immigrants other EU products are not necessarily automatically global products and they make a different distinction between the concepts of other foreign EU products and global products in comparison to the EU citizens. For the EU citizens, the global and the foreign products may be related and may be understood as similar concepts.

Besides, the variance explained by the model in all cases was not very encouraging as in general it was very low. This might be due to the fact that, the respondents had high levels of all other identities involving ethnic identity as well, and in its presence EU identity may become weaker.

Hence, the findings have been able to demonstrate that it is the national identity which is the most constituent predictor of consumers preferences when it comes to the domestic product preferences, the global identity when it comes to the foreign non-Eu product context whereas the European identity when it comes to the other foreign but yet European product context as well as the domestic products. In the same vein with social identity theory, the findings show that the salience of various identities is shifted in congruence to the context achieved (Reed et al., 2012).

The inclusion of SNI construct as a moderator in the model yield interesting results. SNI was assumed to positively interact with European identity and positively affect the purchase intentions of domestic and foreign EU products. However, there was no significant relationship between the EU identity and SNI and the interaction term did not occur. Surprisingly, the findings have shown that the presence of SNI as a predictor yield in negative influence with regard to purchase intentions of both product origins (domestic and foreign EU). The findings indicated that under the influence of SNI as a moderator, European identity had no significant effect on predicting purchase intentions of domestic products and products coming from another EU country.

A study involving Chinese and Armenian immigrants in US revealed that SNI differs depending on the extent that immigrants are assimilated to the host country culture. The study has shown that as Chinese immigrants assimilate into the host country culture, they become less susceptible to influence from the individuals of the host country. On the other hand, Armenian and US culture seem to share a similar culture heritage (Judaean-Christian) which leaves them powerless from the SNI influence of the host country culture. At Armenian individuals, social interactions played a significant role when it comes to identifying consumers who are or are not influenced from susceptible to interpersonal influence (D'Rozario and Choudhury, 2000). For immigrants whose cultural origin is dissimilar to the host country culture the process of identification becomes the most important process in their lives. Therefore, during this process all actions and steps that an immigrant undertakes are influenced from this identification process. The extent to which an individual becomes susceptible to normative influence from native individuals is also dependent from this process (D'Rozario and Choudhury

2000, p. 11). The more immigrants whose culture origin is different from the host country understand and adopt host culture the less susceptible to normative influence they become. On the other hand, the everyday social interactions of immigrants with the native society made them more susceptible to normative influence (D'Rozario and Choudhury 2000, p. 12). That being said, one can argue that the tendencies of SNI construct to act in this way may be explained from the level of integration/assimilation of immigrants in the host country. In this study non-EU immigrants already had a strong national (Austrian) and EU identity which could be perceived as indicators of immigrant's integration. However, results have shown that they can be negatively influenced from host country members when doing consumption choices. This even that theory argues that after getting to know host country culture non-EU immigrants should not be influenced from host society anymore. Nevertheless, immigrant's integration to the host-society is high and the culture differences between them are narrowed this could be one reason why SNI did not moderate the relationship. However, the results provided useful and valuable insights for future research studies who want to better understand this relationship.

7. Theoretical Contributions

To date, many scholars have explored the topic of location-based identities by pointing out contradictory findings. Some of the researchers argue that national and global identity represent two extreme constructs as national identity is tied to a specific nation whereas global identity goes beyond specific borders (Beck, 2004; Markstrom, 2011). Furthermore, it has also been assumed that national and European identity contradict each other (Smith, 1992; Jiménez et al., 2004). Yet, outcomes that are more recent recommend that different identities can coexist and are considered as complementary constructs (Tajfel, 1978; Duchesne & Frognier, 1995; Risse, 2003; Settles, 2004; Reed et al., 2012).

The present study confirms that identities can coexist and this even in the case of non-EU immigrants whose identity is considered as challenged. Immigrants usually come into a foreign country with an already established identity. The integration process encompasses various stages starting from learning the host country language, building social connections, to finding a job and adapting the host country culture (Teney et al., 2016, p. 2185). Therefore, as literature suggested all these social interactions and changes will influence their identities (Grotevant, 1987; Kohli, 2000). Thus, non-EU immi-

grants go through completely different process of adapting two different identities in comparison to EU immigrant who already hold their EU identity from their home country (Teney et al., 2016). This because EU immigrants already hold a passport from one of the EU-28 states which gives them advantages of the EU citizenship (Fehrenkamp, 2013). This on the other hand, is not the case for all non-EU individuals.

This was among the first studies to involve all four identities and simultaneously explore the effect of EU identity of non-EU immigrants while controlling for the rest.

The findings should make a significant contribution in the literature of location-based identities as they offer some important insights with regard to the importance of identities in behavioral research. The positive correlation of European identity with all other four identities highlights the positive interaction between different identities and provides evidence that identities are developed thought the lifespan and are not permanent. Besides, less evidence exists to date with regard the role of EU identity on shaping consumers purchase behavior. This thesis utilizes the neglected impact of multiple based identities by focusing and examining the simultaneous effects of four different identities namely: ethnic, national, global, and European identity on both domestic and foreign product preferences in immigration context.

Therefore, the two main noteworthy contributions of this study to the relevant literature are the necessity to integrate EU identity in the existing multiple based location identities literature as well as identifying its unique contribution in predicting product preferences for domestic and foreign EU products.

Moreover, the result highlight additional and important leading factors in the overall development of EU identity among non-EU immigrants. Political orientation, holding a passport from one of the EU-28 member states and being the second-generation of immigrants, resulted in higher level of EU identity among non-EU immigrants. Interesting enough, is that non-EU immigrants hold high levels of EU identity and high levels of Austrian identity (host-country).

Additionally, the relationship between EU identity and purchase intentions for both domestic and foreign EU products was not moderated from SNI. Although the scale was accordingly adapted and supported from the theory the way that questions were asked in the survey maybe need to be different for immigrants as they seem to be to general.

The scale is continuously referring to the concept “*other people in Austria*” without specifying who these people should be (e.g. individuals with Austrian heritage, individuals who live in Austria, individuals who are born in Austria etc.).

For example, the first three question of the scale ask the following:

- When buying products, I generally purchase brands that I think *other people in Austria approve* of.
- If *other people in Austria* can see me using a product, I tend to purchase the brand they would expect me to buy.
- I achieve a sense of belonging to Austria by purchasing the same products and brands that *other people in Austria* purchase (Bearden et al., 1989).

Hence, it is not clear to whom should non-EU immigrants think while answering the questions since in Austria live also other people who don't have Austrian heritage.

As this was a specific group of immigrants (non-EU immigrants), it is difficult to know with whom they come to frequent contact for e.g. with Austrians (natives) or other individuals living in Austria (non-EU or EU heritage immigrants) or their own ethnic group. Thus, this could be one of reason why moderation did not occur.

In this study, the SNI did not work as a moderator and future studies who want to use this variable should rethink on how to get the best use from this scale. Adding the ethnic product preferences as an additional variable or asking questions referring to Austrians specifically could maybe change this relationship.

8. Managerial Implications

This thesis highlights the crucial role of EU identity in shaping consumers' purchase preferences and provides significant recommendations in the business settings.

The findings lead to important managerial implications in the consumption and product preferences context. In combination with other location-based identities, the EU identity can help managers to promote and reinforce the notion of a particular identity while targeting consumers. In this context, the consumers will direct their purchase intentions toward those products who match their own self-concept (Zhang & Khare, 2009).

Therefore, for consumers whose EU identity is salient, marketers should consider to emphasis European product origin in their marketing communication strategies such as EU symbols, labels, themes etc.

Likewise, for domestic products managers can utilize their marketing campaigns in such a way by using national and EU identity as both were having significant role in shaping

purchase intentions for domestic products likewise for products coming from another EU-country. More specifically, cues that trigger national and EU identity such as Austrian and EU flags or other symbols may be used. Hence, as Diamantopoulos et al., (2017) claimed, using the “Made-in-EU” label alone it is not preferred for domestic products. However, this label was considered to be beneficial for foreign brands coming from EU with unpromising country image, therefore is again highly recommended to be used for the brands with foreign EU product origin.

In addition, by coupling “Made-in- EU” together with the national Austrian symbols the purchase intentions of non-EU immigrants for domestic products could increase, as their EU identity is relatively strong and positively correlated with Austrian identity. In this way, product packaging that are related to domestic cultural symbols, together with “Made-in-EU” label could be recommended for domestic products.

Besides, results indicated that EU-identity had an influence for products coming from another EU country, therefore, it is seen as very suitable to use EU- symbols and labels for this product origin.

For non-European products, the advice is to utilize advertising tactics that involve global elements and features that trigger the salience of global identity likewise highlight the connection to the entire world (Zhang & Kare 2009; Guo, 2013).

Hence, even that the results indicate no direct influence of EU identity on global products it has been proved that these two identities are positively highly correlated and non-EU immigrants had a strong global identity as well. Therefore, additional benefits could be assumed while using both identities in marketing communication strategies as it has already been proved that products with EU origin signal high product quality (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017). Moreover, the EU’s strict standardized regulations for products and services signal high quality standards and performance for products that are made in EU (European Committee for Standardization, 2018).

Importantly, the benefits of EU identity seem to be devoted more to domestic and products coming from another foreign EU country, therefore, managers of both foreign EU and domestic products can gain advantage by using and reinforcing the EU identity.

A further matter is that EU identity could be beneficial for new to the world products and help to enhance their commercial name and penetrate market access, as EU ID is also relatable with quality assessments. Thus, small, and unknown brands could use those benefits for their brand identification as consumers usually use cues to set attributes to an unfamiliar product.

Another important implication is that SNI was not moderating the relationship between the EU identity and product preferences for domestic and other EU products. This means that, these consumers might not be influenced from some types of advertising (e.g. testimonials, expert opinions etc.). Non-EU immigrants seem to not be influenced and do not rely on other people's opinions when making consumption choices.

Therefore, managers who target immigrants with an established EU identity should not invest on promotion to make immigrants susceptible to normative influence as this won't bring any change in their attitudes and purchase behavior. However, this should be taken with caution because the scale used to measure SNI was considered to be too general. The questions were focused to persons living in Austria without making any distinction, meaning if they should be only Austrian individuals or in general individuals who live in Austria.

Interestingly to mention that, SNI had a strong direct negative effect on purchase intentions of domestic and foreign EU products. This might mean that non-EU immigrants could be susceptible from their own ethnic group when it comes to the consumption choices.

Finally, as literature suggested EU and national identification depends from many factors such as for e.g. the EU benefits, the social interactions, the knowledge of the host country culture etc. The integration of non-EU immigrants in the society can contribute to the overall EU integration project and the sense of the EU belonging. The integration policies of the host country should be constructed in such a way that foster both national and EU identification and avoid making one of the identities less feasible. Moreover, it should also be considered that the process of developing the EU identity is also linked to the EU citizenship.

Providing more support for non-EU immigrants (e.g. language courses, further education) and enabling them to directly interact with the social group they aim to belong (to similar others) might enhance their will to adapt and further develop their EU and national identity. Moreover, it should be considered that their integration is also important to maintain healthy social relations between immigrants and host country members.

9. Limitations and further research

Even though this study focuses on the most common non-EU immigrants' groups in Austria (World population review, 2020) the various ethnic origins were not equally represented in the dataset.

Therefore, a comparison between different ethnic origins in terms of their level of identification with the EU was not possible. Cinnirella and Hamilton (2007, p. 496) argue that, in a multicultural nation it can not be expected that EU and national identification will not vary across ethnic groups and that their attitudes will be the same. It has been also shown that in an ethnic environment and when surrounded by ethnic peers, consumption choices are compatible with ethnically associated goods (Kizgin et al., 2018). Therefore, the level of identification and the changes in consumption choices across groups could bring new insights in the immigrant's consumption choices context.

Future studies could also try to achieve a better distribution of some specific ethnic groups to make the necessary comparisons. Thinking in geographical terms, the groups can be divided to the one who are geographically near to the Europe compared to those who are far (e.g. Turkey - Bosnia and Hercegovina) or even concentrating on one specific homogenous group of non-EU immigrants.

Establishing a comparison between Austria and other European countries is beyond the scope of this study. Providing a comprehensive comparison could be interesting as the result are expected to vary with regard to the strength of EU identity and other identities among non-EU immigrants in general. This could also yield in better explanations and more variance in the research model.

Notwithstanding these limitations, product category involvement should be also carefully investigated. Even though it was controlled for product involvement in the analysis, the statistical test has shown significant differences between the product categories. The respondents were more involved in shampoo and clothes in comparison to the camera and hand cream. Involvement with the camera was below the mean however this could be due to the fact that people don't buy cameras that often. Therefore, the next research study should consider finding new high involvement products and consider using the involvement scale again as a control variable.

The present research study was not specifically designed to evaluate price sensitiveness of non-EU immigrants and see its influence in purchase behavior. Future studies may consider involving variables that would measure this issue. Kwak and Sojka (2010, p. 371), have found that the stronger the ethnic identity, the more likely is that the consumption of immigrants will be conducted in such a way that high-price goods are purchased for status purpose. Moreover, their findings have shown that is more likely for youths and immigrants with high incomes to purchase brand products that have higher prices.

Hence, even though the level of European identity among non-EU immigrants seems to be statistically quite high, the precise role that non-EU immigrants play in the overall endorsement of European identity should be investigated and included in future studies. In addition, first and second generation of immigrants may reveal differences in the acculturation process and adoption of values of the host country. Therefore, future research studies should try to understand non-Eu immigrants' cultural values, the process of belonging to the host country and their influence on attitudes and behaviors to better understand the product preferences of this particular group.

Moreover, the findings go beyond the idea that non-EU immigrants may prefer non-EU products more as their ethnic origin is non-EU. Thus, this brings new insight due to the fact that product choices and preferences of non-EU immigrants could be related with Country of Origin effects and also related to non-EU immigrant's affinity to Austria and EU and their level of animosity for non-EU countries. According to the literature, the Country of Origin effect (COO) construct refers to the fact that consumers tend to associate countries with products regardless of the country to which that product is manufactured (e.g. Nike is perceived as US brand and is manufactured in other countries like e.g. China, Vietnam, Bosnia etc.). COO can influence consumers purchase decisions when consumers are familiar of a product's COO as they may act in accordance of this awareness (either positively or negatively) (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013; see also Diamantopoulos et al., 2011).

Consumers' behavior is also influenced from the level of animosity that an individual has towards a particular country. This animosity may be related to a prior or present country events (e.g. politics, economy, military etc.) which leads consumers to simply not purchase products coming from that country. This behavior is unrelated to product features or product quality perceptions (Nes et al., 2012; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). Thus, investigating further these relationships could be interesting for future studies.

Moreover, words or symbols that explicit the country for which the product was produced like for exp. "Made for Austria" combined with "Made-in-EU" label could be used in future studies to find product attitudes and purchase intentions of products coming from other EU countries with unfavorable country image. Measuring the favorable and unfavorable country image and the effect that these labels would have in consumption choices of non-EU immigrants could yield interesting results.

10. References

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11. Appendix

Appendix A – English Questionnaire



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Oskar-Morgenstern-Platz 1 ,1090 Wien

Dear participant,

The following questionnaire is a part of an investigation on the importance of the relationships that you have and build as a customer. The questionnaire is a part of my Master Thesis project which I am doing at the Chair of International Marketing, University of Vienna. I am very grateful for your participation as your answers will help me tremendously towards the completion of my thesis.

There is no right or wrong answer, I am interested in your honest opinion only. Please answer all the questions in the questionnaire. Importantly, the questionnaire is anonymous, serves no commercial purpose, and all relevant information is used only for academic purposes.

Overall, completing the questionnaire takes less than 8 minutes of your time. Again, your participation is very valuable to me.

Thank you for participating in this survey!

Following questions explore your overall attitude and preferences for **Sportswear** products of different product origins.

Please indicate your general attitude towards the following product origins:

	Very unfavorable attitude 1	2	3	4	5	6	Very favorable attitude 7
My overall attitude toward Austrian Sportswear is:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My overall attitude toward Sportswear coming from a <i>European Union country (other than Austria)</i> is:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My overall attitude toward Sportswear coming from a country outside of the European Union is:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree or with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
It is very likely that I would consider buying Sportswear coming from a country outside of the European Union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would purchase Sportswear coming from a country outside of the European Union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would recommend Sportswear coming from a country outside of the European Union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree or with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
It is very likely that I would consider buying Sportswear coming from Austria	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would purchase Sportswear coming from Austria	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would recommend Sportswear coming from Austria	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree or with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
It is very likely that I would consider buying Sportswear coming from a European Union country (other than Austria)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would purchase Sportswear coming from a European Union country (other than Austria)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would recommend Sportswear coming from a European Union country (other than Austria)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Imagine that you want to buy Sportswear. You go into the store and see several relevant products on the shelf. Which one would you choose?

Please indicate your choice by ranking products in such a way that:

1 reflects the **most desirable option** &

3 reflects the **least desirable option**

Austrian Sportswear

☐

Sportswear coming from a European Union country (other than Austria)

☐

Sportswear coming from outside of the European Union

☐

To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
I have a strong interest in Sportswear	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sportswear products are very important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The following questions refers to how you see yourself in general.

Please read the questions carefully and answer according to your own personal beliefs.

To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
I see myself as a part of Austria	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I strongly identify with Austria	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel strong connection to Austria	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Austrian identity is an important reflection of who I am	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
I see myself as a Citizen of the European Union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I strongly iden- tify with the European Union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel strong connection to the European Union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
European Union identity is an important re- flection of who I am	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
I see myself as a global citizen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I strongly identify with the entire world	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel strong connection to the entire world	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Global identity is an important reflection of who I am	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Now we want you to think of the country from which you (and your family) originally come from – your country of origin. Please write down this country in the space provided below:

The country of my ethnic background is:

Now, thinking of **your country of origin – (your ethnic origin)** to what extent would you disagree or agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
I see myself as a part of my ethnic group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I strongly identify with my ethnic group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel strong connection to my ethnic group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My ethnic group identity is an important reflection of who I am	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Regardless of your own personal belief, how do you think **most people in your country of origin** (your ethnic origin) perceive the European Union?

Very unfavorably

Very favorable

1

7

☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐

In general, how would you describe your political views?

Conservative

Liberal

1

7

☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐

The following section of the questionnaire regards your general attitudes as a buyer.

Imagine that you are buying a piece of **high-end branded clothing**.

Please indicate to what extent are the following elements on high-end branded clothing important to you.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Non-Visible logo	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Visible logo
Small brand logo	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Large brand logo
Unnoticeable brand logo	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Noticeable brand logo
Conspicuous brand labels	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Inconspicuous brand labels

To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
When buying products, I generally purchase brands that I think other people in Austria approve of	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If other people in Austria can see me using a product, I tend to purchase the brand they would expect me to buy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I achieve a sense of belonging to Austria by purchasing the same products and brands that other people in Austria purchase	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try to identify with other people in Austria by purchasing the same brands they purchase	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I want to be like someone from Austria, I often try to buy the same brands that they buy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to know what brands and products make a good impression on other people in Austria	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I rarely purchase the latest fashion style until I am sure my friends from Austria approve of them	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is important that others in Austria like the products and brands I buy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Finally, how would you describe your general to political orientation?

I see myself as more

Right Wing

Left Wing

1

7

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

Demographic Information

(this information is confidential and will only be used for statistical purposes)

Gender

☐ Male

☐ Female

Nationality (Passport-s):

☐ Austrian

☐ Other (please indicate which passport you hold)

How many years have you been living in Austria ?

☐ years

☐ I was born here

In the last two year, how many times have you visited your country of origin ?

Once Twice 3 times 4times 5 times 6 times 7 times 8 times 9 times 10 or more

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

Employment status:

- ☐ Full-time employment
- ☐ Part-time employment
- ☐ Vocational training
- ☐ Not employed
- ☐ Retired

Income (net. €/Month):

- ☐ less than 600
- ☐ 601-1000
- ☐ 1001-1500
- ☐ 1501-2000
- ☐ 2001-2500
- ☐ more than 2500

What is your educational level?

- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ Bachelor's degree
- ☐ Vocational School Certificate
- ☐ High school certificate
- ☐ Elementary school
- ☐ Other, please specify _____

Age:

- ☐ 18-25
- ☐ 26-35
- ☐ 36-45

○ 46-55

○ 56+

Scales	Adapted from:
Attitude towards three product categories	Self-developed measure of attitudes
Domestic product preferences	Putrevu, S., & Lord, K. R. (1994). Comparative and noncomparative advertising: Attitudinal effects under cognitive and affective involvement conditions. <i>Journal of Advertising</i> , 23(2), 77-91.
Foreign product preferences	Putrevu, S., & Lord, K. R. (1994). Comparative and noncomparative advertising: Attitudinal effects under cognitive and affective involvement conditions. <i>Journal of Advertising</i> , 23(2), 77-91.
EU product preferences	Self-developed and adapted
Ethnic ID	Ethnic identity, self-developed and adapted accordingly
National ID Global ID EU	Mlicki, P. P., & Ellemers, N. (1996). Being different or being better? National stereotypes and identifications of Polish and Dutch students. <i>European journal of social psychology</i> , 26(1), 97-114. Doosje, B., Haslam, S. A., Spears, R., Oakes, P. J., & Koomen, W. (1998). The effect of comparative context on central tendency and variability judgements and the evaluation of group characteristics. <i>European Journal of Social Psychology</i> , 28(2), 173-184.

Product Category involvement	Mittal, B., & Lee, M. S. (1989). A causal model of consumer involvement. <i>Journal of economic psychology</i> , 10(3), 363-389.
SNI	Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G., & Teel, J. E. (1989), <i>Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence</i> . <i>Journal of consumer research</i> , 15(4), 473-481.
Political orientation	Graham, J., Haidt, J., & Nosek, B. A. (2009). Liberals and conservatives rely on different sets of moral foundations. <i>Journal of personality and social psychology</i> , 96(5), 1029
Conspicuous consumption	Conspicuous consumption scale was adopted from Rucker, D. D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2009); <i>Conspicuous consumption versus utilitarian ideals: How different levels of power shape consumer behavior</i> . <i>Journal of Experimental Social Psychology</i> , 45(3), 549-555.
Ethnic background	Self-developed and adapted accordingly
Perception of European Union	Self-developed and adapted accordingly

APPENDIX B – SPSS Output

Purchase intention domestic

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.390 ^a	.152	.148	1.42363	.152	37.729	1	210	.000
2	.447 ^b	.200	.192	1.38618	.048	12.502	1	209	.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Austrian Identity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Austrian Identity, Product Category Involvement

c. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention Domestic

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	76.466	1	76.466	37.729	.000 ^b
	Residual	425.614	210	2.027		
	Total	502.080	211			
2	Regression	100.489	2	50.244	26.149	.000 ^c
	Residual	401.591	209	1.921		
	Total	502.080	211			

a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention Domestic

b. Predictors: (Constant), Austrian Identity

c. Predictors: (Constant), Austrian Identity, Product Category Involvement

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	3.468	.288		12.037	.000	2.900	4.036
	Austrian Identity	.365	.059	.390	6.142	.000	.248	.483
2	(Constant)	2.813	.336		8.372	.000	2.151	3.476
	Austrian Identity	.338	.058	.361	5.792	.000	.223	.454
	Product Category Involvement	.192	.054	.221	3.536	.001	.085	.299

a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention Domestic

Excluded Variables^a

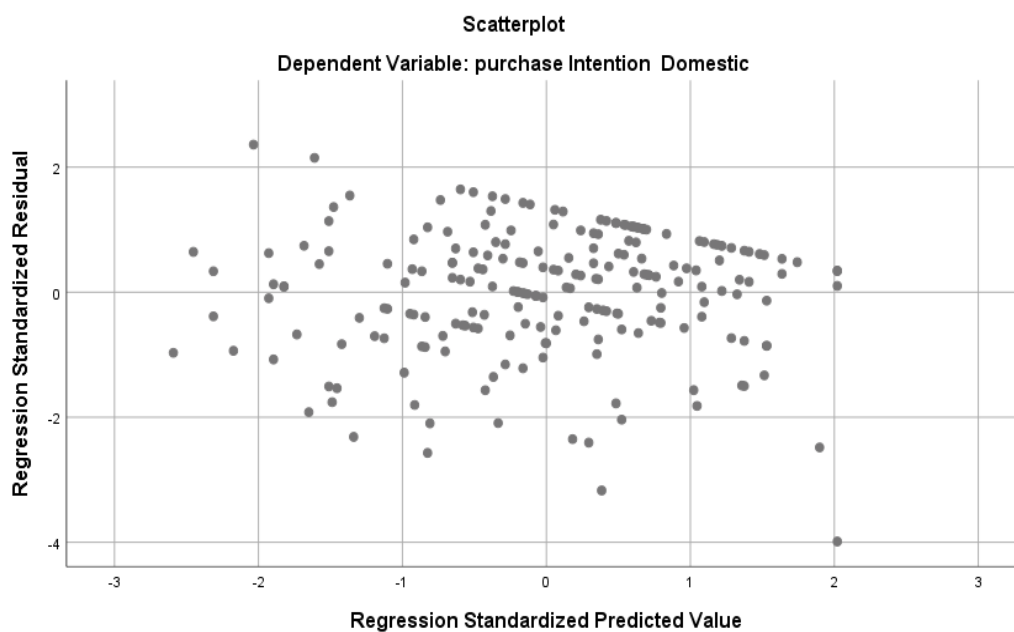
Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
1	Ethnic Identity	.133 ^b	2.117	.035	.145	.999
	Global Identity	.042 ^b	.658	.511	.045	.996
	Product Category Involvement	.221 ^b	3.536	.001	.238	.983
	What is your educational level? - Selected Choice	-.015 ^b	-.232	.817	-.016	.999
	Income (net. €/Month):	.032 ^b	.505	.614	.035	.999
	Age:	.092 ^b	1.452	.148	.100	.999
	European Identity	.160 ^b	2.237	.026	.153	.770
2	Ethnic Identity	.119 ^c	1.936	.054	.133	.995
	Global Identity	.012 ^c	.191	.849	.013	.977
	What is your educational level? - Selected Choice	.005 ^c	.088	.930	.006	.990
	Income (net. €/Month):	.036 ^c	.576	.565	.040	.999
	Age:	.072 ^c	1.161	.247	.080	.990
	European Identity	.129 ^c	1.829	.069	.126	.756

a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention Domestic

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Austrian Identity

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Austrian Identity, Product Category Involvement

Homoscedasticity



Purchase intention foreign EU -other EU countries

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.200 ^a	.040	.036	1.51707	.040	8.790	1	210	.003
2	.250 ^b	.062	.053	1.50295	.022	4.964	1	209	.027

a. Predictors: (Constant), Product Category Involvement

b. Predictors: (Constant), Product Category Involvement , European Identity

c. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention EU

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.230	1	20.230	8.790	.003 ^b
	Residual	483.317	210	2.302		
	Total	503.547	211			
2	Regression	31.443	2	15.722	6.960	.001 ^c
	Residual	472.104	209	2.259		
	Total	503.547	211			

a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention EU

b. Predictors: (Constant), Product Category Involvement

c. Predictors: (Constant), Product Category Involvement , European Identity

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	4.299	.260		16.516	.000	3.786	4.812
	Product Category Involvement	.175	.059	.200	2.965	.003	.059	.291
2	(Constant)	3.707	.370		10.010	.000	2.977	4.437
	Product Category Involvement	.151	.059	.173	2.545	.012	.034	.268
	European Identity	.138	.062	.152	2.228	.027	.016	.261

a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention EU

Excluded Variables^a

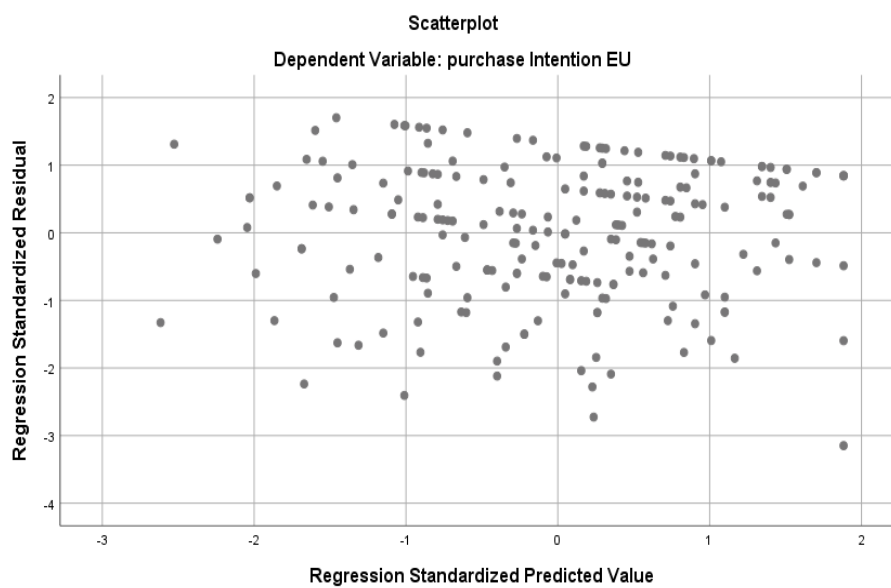
Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Cor- relation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
1	Ethnic Identity	.078 ^b	1.151	.251	.079	.995
	Austrian Identity	.052 ^b	.766	.445	.053	.983
	Global Identity	-.007 ^b	-.109	.913	-.008	.979
	What is your educational level? - Selected Choice	-.094 ^b	-1.391	.166	-.096	.992
	Income (net. €/Month):	.005 ^b	.073	.942	.005	1.000
	Age:	-.009 ^b	-.126	.900	-.009	.992
	European Identity	.152 ^b	2.228	.027	.152	.968
2	Ethnic Identity	.057 ^c	.843	.400	.058	.974
	Austrian Identity	-.023 ^c	-.303	.762	-.021	.768
	Global Identity	-.029 ^c	-.429	.669	-.030	.959
	What is your educational level? - Selected Choice	-.088 ^c	-1.305	.193	-.090	.991
	Income (net. €/Month):	-.012 ^c	-.175	.861	-.012	.987
	Age:	-.022 ^c	-.322	.748	-.022	.985

a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention EU

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Product Category Involvement

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Product Category Involvement , European Identity

Homoscedasticity



Purchase intentions foreign non-EU

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.176 ^a	.031	.026	1.51637	.031	6.676	1	210	.010

a. Predictors: (Constant), Global Identity

b. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention Foreign

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	15.352	1	15.352	6.676	.010 ^b
	Residual	482.869	210	2.299		
	Total	498.220	211			

a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention Foreign

b. Predictors: (Constant), Global Identity

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	3.105	.363		8.557	.000	2.390	3.820
	Global Identity	.173	.067	.176	2.584	.010	.041	.304

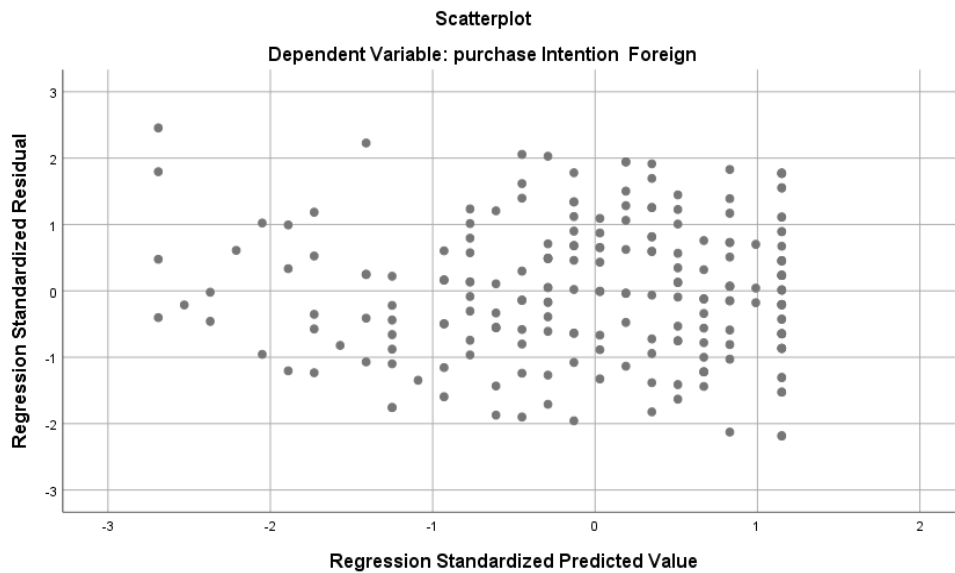
a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention Foreign

Excluded Variables^a

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
1	Ethnic Identity	.082 ^b	1.211	.227	.084	.995
	Austrian Identity	.050 ^b	.740	.460	.051	.996
	Product Category Involvement	.074 ^b	1.085	.279	.075	.979
	What is your educational level? - Selected Choice	.034 ^b	.499	.618	.035	.998
	Income (net. €/Month):	-.078 ^b	-1.152	.251	-.079	1.000
	Age:	-.057 ^b	-.835	.405	-.058	1.000
	European Identity	-.002 ^b	-.023	.982	-.002	.973

- a. Dependent Variable: purchase Intention Foreign
- b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Global Identity

Homoscedasticity



Correlations and all ID-s

Correlations

		Ethnic Identity	Austrian Identity	Global Identity	European Identity
Ethnic Identity	Pearson Correlation	1	.030	-.065	.152*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.666	.340	.025
	N	216	216	216	216
Austrian Identity	Pearson Correlation	.030	1	.070	.478**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.666		.303	.000
	N	216	216	216	216
Global Identity	Pearson Correlation	-.065	.070	1	.163*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.340	.303		.016
	N	216	216	216	216
European Identity	Pearson Correlation	.152*	.478**	.163*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025	.000	.016	
	N	216	216	216	216

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

ONE-WAY-ANOVA - Univariate tests

Political orientation and EU ID

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: European Identity

LSD

(I) VAR00001	(J) VAR00001	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	-.9810*	.41797	.020	-1.8049	-.1571
	3.00	-1.3644*	.34646	.000	-2.0474	-.6815
2.00	1.00	.9810*	.41797	.020	.1571	1.8049
	3.00	-.3834	.29922	.201	-.9732	.2064
3.00	1.00	1.3644*	.34646	.000	.6815	2.0474
	2.00	.3834	.29922	.201	-.2064	.9732

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 2.668.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: European Identity

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Contrast	42.425	2	21.213	7.952	.000	.069	15.904	.953
Error	568.206	213	2.668					

The F tests the effect of VAR00001. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: European Identity

VAR00001	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	3.837	.320	3.205	4.468
2.00	4.818	.269	4.288	5.347
3.00	5.201	.132	4.941	5.461

Nationality(Passport) and EU ID

Estimates

Dependent Variable: European Identity

Nationality (Passport-s): - Selected Choice	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Austrian	5.125	.184	4.762	5.488
Other (please indicate which other passport you hold)	4.512	.163	4.191	4.833

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: European Identity

(I) Nationality (Passport-s): - Selected Choice	(J) Nationality (Passport-s): - Selected Choice	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Austrian	Other (please indicate which other passport you hold)	.613 [*]	.246	.014	.128	1.098
Other (please indicate which other passport you hold)	Austrian	-.613 [*]	.246	.014	-1.098	-.128

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: European Identity

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Contrast	17.307	1	17.307	6.219	.014	.033	6.219	.699
Error	514.829	185	2.783					

The F tests the effect of Nationality (Passport-s): - Selected Choice. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Second generation of non-EU immigrants and EU ID

2. How many years have you been living in Austria ? - Selected Choice

Estimates

Dependent Variable: European Identity

How many years have you been living in Austria ? - Selected Choice	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
not born here	4.842	.126	4.595	5.090
I was born here	5.538	.264	5.018	6.057

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: European Identity

(I) How many years have you been living in Austria ? - Selected Choice	(J) How many years have you been living in Austria ? - Selected Choice	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
not born here	I was born here	-.695 [*]	.292	.018	-1.271	-.120
I was born here	not born here	.695 [*]	.292	.018	.120	1.271

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: European Identity

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	15.751	1	15.751	5.666	.018
Error	594.881	214	2.780		

The F tests the effect of How many years have you been living in Austria ? - Selected Choice. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise

Product category involvement

ANOVA

Product Category Involvement

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	33.498	3	11.166	3.675	.013
Within Groups	641.025	211	3.038		
Total	674.523	214			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Product Category Involvement

LSD

(I) Product Category	(J) Product Category	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Clothes	Camera	.79548*	.33583	.019	.1335	1.4575
	Hand cream	.49050	.32605	.134	-.1522	1.1332
	Shampoo	-.24369	.32258	.451	-.8796	.3922
Camera	Clothes	-.79548*	.33583	.019	-1.4575	-.1335
	Hand cream	-.30499	.35442	.390	-1.0036	.3937
	Shampoo	-1.03917*	.35123	.003	-1.7315	-.3468
Hand cream	Clothes	-.49050	.32605	.134	-1.1332	.1522
	Camera	.30499	.35442	.390	-.3937	1.0036
	Shampoo	-.73418*	.34189	.033	-1.4081	-.0602
Shampoo	Clothes	.24369	.32258	.451	-.3922	.8796
	Camera	1.03917*	.35123	.003	.3468	1.7315
	Hand cream	.73418*	.34189	.033	.0602	1.4081

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Moderation with Process Model 1

Domestic products

Run MATRIX procedure:

Model : 1

Y : PI_Domes

X : ID_EU

W : SNI

Covariates:

ID_ETH ID_A ID_G PC_Invol Educatio Income Age

Sample

Size: 205

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

PI_Domes

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
Model	.4999	.2499	1.8689	6.4636	10.0000	194.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.4368	.6984	3.4892	.0006	1.2826	3.5910
ID_EU	.0965	.0682	1.4144	.1589	-.0163	.2093
SNI	-.2145	.0791	-2.7101	.0073	-.3453	-.0837
Int_1	.0203	.0428	.4751	.6352	-.0504	.0911
ID_ETH	.0777	.0558	1.3922	.1655	-.0145	.1699
ID_A	.3163	.0679	4.6573	.0000	.2041	.4286
ID_G	-.0208	.0645	-.3227	.7473	-.1274	.0858
PC_Invol	.1669	.0559	2.9879	.0032	.0746	.2592
Educatio	.0249	.0695	.3586	.7203	-.0899	.1397
Income	.0387	.0670	.5776	.5642	-.0720	.1495
Age	.0613	.1279	.4795	.6321	-.1500	.2726

Product terms key:

Int_1 : ID_EU x SNI

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0009	.2257	1.0000	194.0000	.6352

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

90.0000

|

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

SNI ID_EU

Foreign EU products

Run MATRIX procedure:

Model : 1

Y : PI_EU

X : ID_EU

W : SNI

Covariates:

ID_ETH ID_A ID_G PC_Invol Educatio Income Age

Sample

Size: 205

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

PI_EU

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
Model	.3050	.0930	2.2289	1.9903	10.0000	194.0000	.0362
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
constant	4.7726	.7627	6.2578	.0000	3.5121	6.0331	
ID_EU	.1411	.0745	1.8931	.0598	.0179	.2643	
SNI	-.1895	.0864	-2.1932	.0295	-.3324	-.0467	
Int_1	-.0017	.0468	-.0364	.9710	-.0790	.0756	
ID_ETH	.0482	.0609	.7918	.4294	-.0524	.1489	
ID_A	-.0187	.0742	-.2521	.8012	-.1413	.1039	
ID_G	-.0418	.0704	-.5938	.5534	-.1582	.0746	
PC_Invol	.1552	.0610	2.5448	.0117	.0544	.2561	
Educatio	-.0818	.0758	-1.0779	.2824	-.2071	.0436	
Income	.0195	.0732	.2661	.7905	-.1015	.1404	
Age	-.0963	.1396	-.6895	.4913	-.3270	.1345	

Product terms key:

Int_1 : ID_EU x SNI

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0000	.0013	1.0000	194.0000	.9710

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

90.0000

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

SNI ID_EU

Appendix C – German Abstract

Wissenschaftler haben empirische Beweise dafür geliefert, dass Individuen von einer Reihe von sozialen Identitäten beeinflusst werden. Dieses Bestimmen und Gestalten ihre Selbstansicht sowie ihr Verhalten und ihre Einstellungen. Unter den sozialen Identitäten, wurde bisher die europäische Identität von den Forschern relativ vernachlässigt, obwohl sie einen nachgewiesenen Einfluss auf das Verbraucherverhalten hat. Frühere Forschungsstudien konzentrierten sich hauptsächlich auf nationale und globale Identitäten. Erst vor kurzem wurden die Auswirkungen der europäischen (EU) Identität in den Konsumpräferenzen einbezogen und weitergehend erforscht. Des Weiteren haben die Forscher es verabsäumt, Einwanderer aus Nicht-EU-Ländern in ihre Untersuchung zu den Verhältnissen zwischen der EU-Identität und ihren Konsumpräferenzen einzubeziehen. Unter Berufung auf ältere Forschungsmodelle besteht das Ziel dieser Arbeit darin, den Einfluss der EU-Identität auf die Kaufpräferenzen der Kunden für österreichische Produkte, Produkte aus einem anderen EU-Land (außer Österreich) und Produkte von außerhalb der Europäischen Union zu ermitteln. Eine empirische Untersuchung mit einer Stichprobe von 216 Probanden wurde durchgeführt, um die hypothetischen Beziehungen zu untersuchen. Die Ergebnisse zeigten, dass die EU-Identität positiv mit der globalen, nationalen und ethnischen Identität korreliert. Die Regressionsanalysen zeigen, dass die EU-Identität nach Kontrolle der Einflüsse ethnischer, nationaler und globaler Identität die Kaufabsichten der Verbraucher gegenüber österreichischen Produkten und Produkten aus einem anderen EU-Land erheblich beeinflusst. Die Ergebnisse zeigen desweiteren, dass sich unter dem Einfluss der Empfänglichkeit der Verbraucher für normative Einflüsse (SNI) als Moderator die Auswirkungen der europäischen Identität auf die Kaufabsichten für in- und ausländische EU-Produkte nicht geändert haben. Die entscheidende Rolle der EU-Identität bei der Prognose des Kaufverhaltens der Verbraucher sollte in der Literatur ortsbasierter Identitäten erfasst und anwendbar sein. Hinweise, die eine europäische Identifizierung auslösen, sollten berücksichtigt werden, da diese zu einem Anstieg des Absatzes von in- und ausländischen EU-Produkten führen können. Außerdem sollte mit Vorsicht die erste und zweite Generation von Einwanderern aus Nicht-EU als mögliche Zielgruppe betrachtet werden, da sie sich in ihrer Identifikation mit der EU erheblich unterscheiden.

Schlagworte: *Europäische Identität, Theorie der sozialen Identität, standortbasierte Identität, ethnische Identität, nationale Identität, globale Identität, Kaufabsichten, in- und ausländische Produktpräferenz, Zuwanderer aus der EU.*